DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 085 872 EA 005 755

AUTHOR	Pierson, H. L.
TITLE	Shaping the Schools: A Guide to Boardmanship. Revised.
INSTITUTION	New England Program in Teacher Education, Durham, N.H.; New Hampshire School Boards Association, Durham.
SPONS AGENCY	Spaulding-Potter Trust, Concord, N.H.
PUB DATE	Mar 73
NOTE	145p.
AVAILABLE FROM	New Hampshire School Boards Association, 6 Garrison Avenue, Durham, New Hampshire 03824 ($2.50)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS	*Administrative Principles; *Administrator Guides; Board Administrator Relationship; *Board of Education Policy; Board of Education Role; *Boards of Education; Educational Policy; Public School Systems; School Community Relationship; *School District Autonomy; School Districts

ABSTRACT

An effective school board is well aware of its legal status as a corporate body. It understands its duty to deliberate and reach decisions regarding the educational needs of the community, the best use of available resources, the adoption of policies and programs which will secure an opportunity of great personal advantage to the youth of the community and, at the same time, protect the State from the consequences of an ignorant and incompetent citizenry. Frequently, school board members, either by choice or because of failure to be reelected, have a relatively short stay in office. This high rate of "turnover" thrusts great responsibilities on those who may not always see clearly the consequences of some important decision. This handbook is designed to ease the transitional period by highlighting what a new school board member in New Hampshire needs to know. Described are needed skills in negotiations, decisionmaking, goal-setting, needs assessment, communications, and community relations. Experienced committeemen should also find the information useful for those new and unexpected problems that constantly arise. (Author)

ED 085872

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN
ATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE
SENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

SHAPING THE SCHOOLS

A Guide To Boardmanship

BY H. L. PIERSON

EA 005 755

FILMED FROM BEST AVAILABLE COPY

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Accepting the Challenge	3
Out of the Past	4
Keep It Legal	14
Policy Making	22
Board Meetings	41
The Superintendent	50
Auxiliary Personnel	59
Salaries and Negotiations	62
Student Discipline, Marriage and Pregnancy	72
District Organization and Reorganization	80
Curriculum: What Is It?	87
The Handicapped Child	90
Public Relations	93
Health, Safety and Sex Education	101
The Money Tree	106
Cutting Costs	108
Historical Past	114
Building Maintenance	122
School Transportation	125
Futuristics	128
Help Wanted	131
The Teaching Staff	134

PREFACE—1973 EDITION

The decision to revise the first (1966) edition of **"Shaping The Schools"** was prompted by the "out-dating" of material due to changing laws and changing educational techniques and philosophy.

With encouragement from Jason E. Boynton, who is Executive Secretary of the New Hampshire School Boards Association; Director of the Center for Educational Field Services; and professor of school law at the University of New Hampshire, the project was undertaken. Partial funding for a revised edition came from the New England Program in Teacher Education—an arm of the New England Regional Commission.

As a result, nearly 50 percent of the first edition was eliminated or rewritten. Legal changes as a result of federal and state court rulings were updated and greater emphasis has been given to boardmanship skills such as: goal settings, decision making, negotiations, superintendent/board relations, needs assessments, communications, futuristics, quality teaching and community-school partnerships.

I am grateful to Jay Boynton for his constructive criticism of the manuscript and his logistical support in bringing the 1973 Edition of **"Shaping The Schools"** into reality.

Harold L. Pierson
at New Hampton, N.H.
March 1973

PREFACE

In reaching its final form, this book is more than an individual effort. It represents the helpful advice and criticism of several dedicated people; the assistance of a number of organizations and agencies; and published material from many sources. The innovator and key figure in this effort has been Jason E. Boynton, Director of the Center for Educational Field Services and Executive Secretary of the New Hampshire School Boards Association, who chaired an advisory committee for this book composed of William Baston of the State Department of Education; Superintendent Gordon Flint of Newport; and Alexander Taft of Greenville, past president of the NHSBA. Without the constructive criticism of these sincere men, the manuscript would not have been as free of factual errors and oversights.

There is, also, a depth of gratitude for the talented Rockport artist—Genevieve Wilhelm Roubaud—whose illustrations have enlivened the pages and symbolized their content.

Unlimited material was supplied by the N.H. Department of Education; the Educational Facilities Laboratory of New York; the American Institute for Research at Palo Alto, California; the Visual Communications Education Department of Western Washington State College; and the NHSBA.

Much information and many new ideas came from the pages of School Management magazine; and articles on education in the Saturday Review, the Boston Herald-Traveler, the New York Times, and the Wall Street Journal. Bulletins from the Center for Educational Field Services and the N.H. Council for Better Schools were further sources of good information.

Legal opinions and statements came, in the most part, from the following books:— N.H. Revised Statutes Annotated Relating to Public Schools; Legal Problems of School Boards by Arthur A. Rezny; School Law by Madaline K. Remmlein; and Principles of School Law by Robert L. Drury and Kenneth C. Ray.

Accumulated minutes, records, policy statements and reports from ten years of service on the Winnacunnet School Board in Supervisory Union #21 were used abundantly to recall practical approaches to school boardsmanship. Also, informative experiences which rubbed off from the administrative skills of the school's principal, Daniel S. Maloney appear in the text.

Thanks must go to Dr. Daniel R. Davies of Tucson, Arizona for permission to use the Davies Management Cycle in a discussion of policy making and to Mrs. Erwin W. Shaw of the Gordon-Nash Library in New Hampton for unearthing many out-of-print books that supplied valuable historical information.

This entire project was made financially possible by a grant from the **Spaulding-Potter Trust.**

INTRODUCTION

If you are a newly elected school board member you will appreciate the wise counsel offered by Dr. Harold Pierson in this revision of his early publication "Shaping the Schools." He, as an experienced school board member, is a talented observer and supporter of public school education in New Hampshire. Many veteran school board members will welcome this revision and find it especially useful as an informative manual and guide.

An effective school board is well aware of its legal status as a corporate body. It understands its duty to deliberate and reach decisions regarding: the educational needs of the community; the best use of available resources; the adoption of policies and programs which will secure an opportunity of great personal advantage to the youth of the community, and at the same time, protect the state from the consequences of an ignorant and incompetent citizenry.

Frequently, school board members, either by choice or because of failure to be reelected, have a relatively short stay in office. This high rate of "turnover" thrusts great responsibilities on those who may not always see clearly the consequences of some important decision. Seldom, in my opinion, will a board take action if it knows that the consequences of such action will be in conflict with the governmental purposes of public school education. The responsible board member will make every effort to foresee the consequences of proposals before the board, and act accordingly.

I hope you find this publication informative and useful. It presents the point of view of one thoughtful and experienced school board member.

JASON E. BOYNTON
Executive Secretary
New Hampshire School Boards Association

ACCEPTING THE CHALLENGE

The greatest single influence on the American public yesterday, today and tomorrow has been—is—and will be—the cumulative decisions of school board members. The happiness, prosperity and health of every citizen will be better or worse because of actions taken by more than 150,000 men and women in the United States charged with the responsibility of running the nation's schools. No single member is unimportant. Each is a vital link in an endless chain, whether the policies shape the program of a small rural school or a large urban complex. Since every school board decision to a greater, or lesser, degree will have some permanent effect upon society, each judgment must be weighed carefully with an open-mind and fitted within the framework of "what is best for the student". . .The challenge is enormous at every level—a job for courageous men and women of high resolve.

The school board member assumes the obligations for the largest —most diverse—operation in the community. The capital investment in lands, buildings and equipment—the payroll—the operating expenses will represent a staggering flow of dollars. Yet these comprise only a portion of the challenge. The greatest responsibility is in the quality of the educational program. The finest physical plant is worthless, if the academic policy falters. What happens within the school walls—and what is carried out through the doors in the minds and hearts of the students is the very soul of education.

So each board member must conern himself with the intellectual, as well as the material, aspects of the educational process, in these basic areas of obligation:—

——The quality of the administrative and teaching staff.

——The depth and breadth of the academic curriculum.

——The character building qualities of a diverse co-curricula program.

With a plant, a staff and a plan, the board's actions mold these factors into an integrated whole—the educational program—that fits the needs and financial resources of the district.

Thus, the school boards must operate the largest, liveliest busi-

ness in town—and at the same time assume full responsibility for the educational process. However, for carrying out such awesome tasks, each school board member is richly rewarded—not with money, but with the great personal satisfaction that comes with helping direct the youth of the community toward richer, fuller lives.

Every year, more than 200 new persons will take their places on New Hampshire school boards. They will be inexperienced, unsure of their legal and moral responsibilities, and uninformed in the highly specialized educational process which they will immediately be called upon to shape. The value of meaningful experience is unchallenged—but it does require time. This means the newly elected board member must use the first year—and sometimes the second—getting his feet solidly planted in the job.

This handbook is designed to ease the transitional period by condensing basic information accumulated through 16 years of personal experience on New Hampshire school boards which proved helpful in shaping school policy. It is hoped that experienced committeemen may find it useful, also, for those new and unexpected problems which constantly arise.

The premise of the book is fundamental. It is not an encyclopedia of school law and educational function—but a "door-opener" that may lead into fuller, more specific investigation—an educational primer that will facilitate meaningful dialogue with superintendents and other professional personnel—and a collection of "take-off" points which will hopefully aim the thinking of school board members in the direction of sound and just educational policy.

Every school board member faces a critical and sensitive challenge. He must learn to rise above external pressures—to maintain a civic awareness—to set policy with an open mind—and to accept and support the principles of democratic consensus, so that self-interest is subordinated to the best interest of the children of the district.

OUT OF THE PAST

When the Puritans showed their stern to the coastline of religiously hostile England and pointed their bow toward the physically hostile shores of New England, they bore a precious cargo with them to the new world. Carried in the hearts and minds of their intellectual leaders were the seeds of free, public education to be sown on the rocky but receptive soil. It would take three centuries of plant-

ing, cultivating, cross-breeding and tender, loving care for the educational flower to reach full bloom in the state of New Hampshire. There would be lengthy periods of drought and disease, but education would survive all of it's reverses and all its hardships to finally become a vital part of the American dream.

Schools have always been found in the train of civilization so it was most natural for the Puritans to continue this tradition. The early arrivals, who concentrated their population in tight enclaves along the seacoast and in the river valley, adopted John Calvin's city-state form of civil and religious government giving birth to the New England town meeting. Thus, the new settlers hardly had time to dull their axes clearing the land before they officially turned their attention to education. There was a great vigor in this chain of villages and each self-contained unit was economically and socially independent.

New England in these days had little outside stimulation. The unchallenged and restrictive embrace of Puritanism held the villagers in a tight and authoritative clasp from which the only release was expulsion. The Puritans had taken this bold step into an uncivilized environment as an experiment in Christian living. There was no thirst for material gains—no speculative enthusiasm for adventure. The motivating force was a Puritan belief that man could serve his God by living and applying Christian principles to his chosen calling, as well as, in the ministry.

This fundamental religious philosophy was a poor habitat for artistic and intellectual growth but the hardy pioneer life, the dedication of the settlers and the severed contacts with the culture and learning of Europe generated a modification of the old doctrines. In the very first decade of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, the intellectual seeds germinated well in this new media. The results were powerfully manifested in its school system which continues to flourish throughout the 17th century. Puritanism was the catalyic agent, and in its strict and austere atmosphere a love of classical literature was nourished that perpetuated the valuable classic tradition for all New England and fostered a concern for educational progress among succeeding generations. Unfortunately, this enthusiasm dwindled with the subsequent drying up of Puritanism.

However, as early as 1627 an ordinance was passed that placed the burden of continuing literacy upon each family for their children. It was religious by design since salvation was directly related by the Puritans to one's ability to read the scriptures and every parent was charged with the legal responsibility of teaching their children to decipher the printed word. Unqualified or too busy progenitors turned this job over to a neighbor for a small stipend, which gave rise to the Colonial dame schools.

The law of 1627 had only modest success. Not satisfied with the parental response of the "home study" act, the village leaders appealed to their servant—the state. Because of this petition, the Massachusetts Bay Colony enacted the law of 1642 which directed the town selectmen to check on the parents and masters to determine if

the educational duties were being fulfilled—and to penalize delinquents with fines. Thus, the first compulsory education law was passed and since New Hampshire was part of the Colony from 1641 to 1680, these acts applied to residents of the Granite State.

The first arrivals, under Calvanism, had been requested to live within one-half mile of the meeting house so these early dame schools and common schools could function with some success. It was not until the pioneers moved away from the villages to clear farms from the forests that the itinerant schoolmaster came into being. This meant, at best, a few days to a few weeks of reading instruction for these outpost children and colonial education suffered from diffusion of effort.

There were some towns which had established schools prior to the law of 1642, such as Boston in 1635, Charlestown in 1636 and Dorchester in 1639. Support of the common schools came from endowments and contributions, as well as, taxation. Their educational motives were threefold:— education, social adjustment and religious training, which differs from many historians who make promotion of the Puritan philosophy the only motivating force.

The best known—and most often quoted—piece of 17th century law was the act of 1647, familiarily called, "Ye Ould Deluder, Satan, Act." This has often been called the corner stone of American education—but only at the expense of ignoring the earlier acts of 1627 and 1642.

The popular name of the act of 1647 is drawn from a sentence of the preamble which reads, "It being one chiefe object of ye ould deluder, Satan, to keep men from ye knowledge of ye scriptures...." and goes on to say every township containing 50 householders must appoint a schoolmaster to teach children to read and write and a town of 100 householders must set up a grammar school to fit youth for the university. Thus, if one were to take inferences from this act, it is all too easy to say that religious knowledge was the chief object and the Puritans failed to recognize the values of a comprehensive education. However, such criticism is an obstacle in the full understanding of early New England education.

Prior evidence has already proven that parents were lax in assuming their educational responsibilities. Householders were undependable and the laissez-faire attitude was a great failure making it necessary for the government to interfere. To strengthen the act, some psychologically minded legislator probably inserted the reference to hell-fire and brimstone to "ye ould deluder, Satan" to prod these uncooperative parents into assuming their educational and social obligations by a prick from the devil's pitchfork.

The Massachusetts Bay Colony, certainly, had other reasons for setting up schools than defeating the "supreme being of evil". In addition to teaching reading and writing, a study of capital laws was included that made this act unique and in the revision the following year the preamble begins, "For as much as good education of children is singular behoof and befit to any common-wealth" which definitely reflects motives other than Puritanism and fear of Satan.

To be sure, the schools were not a roaring success by today's standards. The attendance was irregular, teachers were untrained and scholars' supplies were extremely limited. Each child has his "horn-book", which was a wooden frame with a protective sheet of horn through which could be read a few single syllable words, the alphabet and always the Lord's Prayer.

Generation upon generation of adult society has thrust its way of life and its opinions upon children. Thus, the spellers, the primers and the catechisms combined religious instruction with the secular and were heavily weighted toward the Puritan philosophy. These school books were most primitive and naturally borrowed from what they had known in England.

They kept no literacy records so an accurate estimate of the success of the schools is impossible but a fair determination can be made from an examination of the court records which provide sufficient data to make a limited evaluation. Those who signed those early legal documents with a mark obviously were not literate but enough were able to sign their names to indicate, at least, average success.

SEX DISCRIMINATION

As might be expected of a sex whose place was in the home, the women of Colonial times had the lowest rate of literacy. It must be remembered that these statistics apply to writing, as well as, reading. Since the first schools were only charged with the job of teaching reading, there must have been many able to read who could not write. Other variable factors make accurate conclusions difficult, one of these being that indigent pioneers and indentured wards would not likely be signing deeds or any other legal documents.

Like the English schools, which they copied, the day started early and finished late; sessions went around the calender with no long vacations; they took only boys between the ages of seven and eight; and spent seven years preparing them for college. However, these grammar schools established by the Act of 1647 were neither religious nor puritanical. Like the earlier common schools, they were controlled entirely by the towns through the town meetings and were supported by taxation, tuition and land rents.

The ingenious Puritans found a potent way to produce the money for schools. They injected the provincial desire for "home rule" as a psychological weapon. Any town failing to provide grammar school instruction was fined £5 to £10 payable to the nearest town conforming to the law. There was much jealous competition between villages making it most humiliating to have to pay a penalty to their rival town. Also, it was expensive since a college graduate was only paid £20 per year in those days.

These were the early seeds of American education and it would be gratifying to report that the schools progressed steadily forward—growing and developing with each new generation. Unhappily, this was not the course of events and by the end of the 17th century, before King Philip's War, the educational system had collapsed in

what was the most prosperous period of the century

This great prosperity had much to do with the downfall of the schools. The sealanes to Europe and the West Indies were crowded with trading vessels and quick fortunes were the order of the day. The lure of gold combined with the romantic attraction of the sea emptied the school houses in favor of a berth on a sailing ship. Also, attendance was not compulsory and a vanishing point was reached.

In addition, the decline of Puritanism with its rigid doctrines plus the dispersion of the pioneers from the tight little villages along the seaports and rivers to adventuresome exploration of the new world frontiers added to the educational anemia.

Despite these set-backs, free public education had been born in New England and set the foundations of the present American system. Considered by many 20th century critics as gamesmanship to promote the Puritan creed, the schools have been charged with making exaggerated rather than practical gestures and being totally lacking in educational value but this is unjust criticism. There was strong, underlying humanism among the Puritans and the schools were not strictly church oriented but public schools by any contemporary interpretation. Secularization occurred very early when the schools were placed under town and commonwealth control and when lay teachers were employed. Also, education was made free, as well as, public.

New Hampshire was first settled along the seacoast but by a different breed of villager. Instead of religious freedom, they sought the wealth of the new world. The Company of Laconia of Mason and Gorges entrenched themselves in Portsmouth and Dover in 1623 "to cultivate the vine, to fish and to trade." Unlike the intellectually motivated Puritans south of them, these materialists ignored education completely until the union with the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1641. This 38 year marriage with Massachusetts had many great educational advantages for New Hampshire.

The divorce took place in 1680. On resuming independence, New Hampshire copied the education act of 1647 nearly verbatim from its former mate—but it was poorly enforced. The execution of the law was unsuccessfully left in the hands of the selectmen and the money raised at the discretion of the towns. With a preponderance of selectmen who were anti-education and citizens who were anti-taxes, the public schools endured accordingly.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

This stimulated the rapid growth of private schools in New Hampshire which was unequalled in United States history. The interest in scholarly learning effected the establishment of vast numbers of academies all over the state, some of which still exist today or have since been incorporated into public schools. The thirst for education was apparent in New Hampshire from the rush to provide private education when public education failed to quench their thirst. As a result, the state has been endowed with many famous

preparatory schools which grew out of this private initiative for better education such as Philips Exeter Academy, St. Paul's School, New Hampton School, Holderness School and others which still provide quality education.

During the period of King Williams War, New Hampshire was in a state of extreme poverty. The citizens were suffering the cruel inhumanities of seven years of conflict with the French and Indians. In 1693, at the height of its adversity, New Hampshire passed its first—but unenforceable—act for education, which required selectmen to raise money by "an equal rate and assessment" for school buildings and provide a schoolmaster for each town.

The 18th century entered a period of steady educational decline climaxed by the disastrous effects of the American Revolution when it reached a point of near extinction. There was notable waning of the old religious interests, frontier conditions were physically severe, the force of the old Calvanistic religious-town government weakened considerably, sects became more diverse, trade and civil interests were on the increase and the traditional ties with England had broken down. Education experienced severe drought in this atmosphere.

Many parochial and elementary schools died out and the local school replaced the earlier religious ones. Control of the schools remained in the town meeting with all powers delegated to the selectmen. Consequently, the schools either flourished or declined on their inclinations. The intelligent and understanding selectmen promoted education while the ignorant and unprincipled discouraged schools for various politically expedient reasons.

The statute books, also, revealed a declining interest in education and the rigidity of the primitive laws was gradually relaxed. During the war period from 1775 to 1789 illiteracy increased with great rapidity and common school after common school closed until educational activity reached this critical low. The curriculum was limited to reading and writing. The frontier schools even used birch bark for paper.

By 1789 the condition of the schools was so poor that the New Hampshire legislature repealed all former educational acts to create a stronger and more comprehensive law. Then in the writing of the state constitution in 1792, a clear position was taken on the state's responsibility toward education. This statement still remains the motivating base for all education legislation.

FIRST SCHOOL BOARD

In the early years of the common school, the voters elected a school director to look out for the program and make reports at the annual town meeting—but these directors had no legal status, just advisory and supervisory. Then came the 19th century. In 1827 the legislature gave birth to the present school board when they passed a law calling for the annual appointment of a superintending committee of three to five members by the selectmen and, in addition, gave them legal status in all matters concerning the schools.

The newly created superintending committee had housekeeping and educational responsibilities far greater than present boards. It was their job to know where the roof leaked, how much winter firewood was stacked in the shed and the sanitary condition of the outhouses; they had to select and purchase scholar supplies making sure they did not pick text books that favored any religious sect; they had to circulate among the householders to encourage and enforce attendance at school; and they had to present a detailed report of all these activities at the annual town meeting.

Two years later, in 1829, a local prudential committee was created by law to exercise parsimony in the expenditures of school monies on all matters outside of the classroom. The designation of the fiscal committee as "prudential" reflects the attitude towards support of education. Prudence was the watchword. Schools were to get only the bare bones of the tax dollar and the prudential committee was to keep the purse strings tightly drawn, oozing out only subsistence money.

The creation of the prudentials caused great conflict with the superintending committee. Overlapping duties and irreconcilable difference of opinion developed unpleasant rifts. Despite the problems resulting from division of control, the bifurcating method of school administration continued throughout most of the 19th century at the expense of the school children. The stultifying conflict lasted until 1887 when the state passed a law placing legal control of the schools in the hands of an elected school board ending the painful and costly—in terms of quality—experiment.

About the same time they created the prudential committee, the legislature made it legal for towns or districts—for the district system was in full swing in this period—to assess a property tax for the support of schools. This was nothing new since the practice of raising educational monies by property tax had been established 200 years before by the Puritans

By the middle of the 19th century, the job of the school committee was proving too much for the average citizen resulting in a rapid turnover in members. A public call was made for a change in the supervision of schools on the premise that committeemen did not have either the time or the training for the work. Since it was increasingly difficult to find men with the time and interest to take on the involved and complex duties of the school committee, the 1872 legislature passed a law permitting women to leave their cradles and kitchens to serve the cause.

Despite the new laws, education in New Hampshire continued to decline. Even the act of 1846 creating a commissioner of common schools had it's travail. The sponsor of the bill, Prof. Charles B. Haddock of Dartmouth College, was the first one appointed by the governor and council to hold down the job—but it did little to advance the cause. It did lead, however, to the establishment of a state board of education in 1851. High schools were formed in the state at the same time, but only after a long and bitter series of local struggles.

Money has been a plaguing problem throughout New Hampshire's educational history and the superintendent's report in 1870, when the dog tax went for schools, cried out in print, "What a pity that we should not have more dogs, or be able to tax them higher, so that we might be able to educate our children better."

About the turn of the 20th century, the New Hampshire legislature, which had been enacting, repealing and re-enacting educational laws without effecting much improvement or interest in the schools, passed two significant pieces of legislation. The first laid the foundation for improved learning by setting up a system of teacher certification. The second permitted two or more towns to hire professional supervision for their schools. However, these important acts failed to start the educational adrenalin flowing in the veins of the New Hampshire communities. The certification requirement was disregarded and the towns continued to hire untrained teachers for a pittance and professional supervision stabbed at their pride in "home rule". Even though the state would pay fifty percent of the salary, the towns balked at relinquishing any local control to an outsider.

DECLINE OF SCHOOLS

It was a low period for education in the state with untrained teachers, no supervision other than local, and decaying, inadequate school buildings. School committees were more concerned with how little money they could spend on education than the future effects of poor schooling on their young people. Most towns showed no interest in providing any sort of advanced program so would not pay tuition for high school students. There was no compulsory attendance. The length of the school year was not standardized and no public transportation was provided for those living beyond a reasonable walking distance from the school.

The physical condition of the buildings and the second-class treatment of the teachers provided a ghastly atmosphere for education, as reported in a study made by the Sandwich Historical Society in 1945. The first printed report in Sandwich in 1852 stated". . . The meagre stipend of the teacher ($12.50 per month for men; less than $5 per month for women. Ed.) serves to degrade the office in his own view and that of others. . . In many districts the seat of their operations, their place of daily toil, would have been mistaken in the dark ages, by the casual observer for a rendezvous of wizards and gypsies. . .When the teacher entered one of these filthy, ill-constructed rooms and surveys the furniture, the old broken teacher's chair, the seats and desks hacked, scored and scratched by several generations of boys, he feels himself deeply degraded. . . Here, day after day, the teacher is doomed to go the rounds of his thankless task; and for board and lodging, in many cases, to wander over the district like a common mendicant."

It was a sad state of affairs at the turn of the 20th century. Far removed from the classical tradition brought to New England by the Puritans. According to census figures, nearly one quarter of the population left New Hampshire during this period to find better

employment and to seek better education for their children. Education was an unpopular subject—probably because it used tax dollars. It was, also, politically inexpedient to try and light the lamp of knowledge, as one state superintendent sadly learned.

Channing Folsom was a go-getter with great foresight who charged over the entire state, in discharge of his office as superintendent, beating the drum for an improved program. He organized groups to support his ideas among the many solid citizens who knew the real values of education. But this "upstart" got his just rewards from the New Hampshire legislature in 1904. When the Governor presented the name of Channing Folsom for re-election, the solons soundly repudiated this "troublemaker" by refusing to approve the nomination.

It would take a bomb to jar the educational lethargy in New Hampshire—and this is exactly what happened! The explosion of World War I rocked the anti-education citadel. So many of New Hampshire's finest young men were rejected from the draft because they lacked sufficient education to meet the mental demands of modern warfare that the inadequacy of the state's public schools became glaringly apparent. That the young men of New Hampshire could not fulfill their patriotic duties because of poor schooling lighted the fuse. The nationalists and the academists joined hands in a common effort to improve the quality. The press supported the undertaking. The Grange, the Teacher's Association and other organized groups took up the drive for better schools.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, previously cautious because of the treatment of his co-patriot, Channing Folsom, 15 years earlier, welcomed the public support and launched a vigorous campaign of his own. Among other things, he persuaded Governor Bartlett to appoint a citizens committee of eight to make an in depth study of the problem.

Action came swiftly! It took only six weeks after their appointment in November 1918 to discharge their obligation. The Committee of Eight made five bold observations and recommendations, as follows:—

(1) The present archaic system of statues were regressive, weak and in need of complete overhaul that would provide a strong central authority with power to enforce the school laws.

(2) The financing was horribly inadequate and the meagre state-aid was being inequitably apportioned.

(3) The teacher training program needed broadening and improving under state control with enforcement of certification and minimum standards.

(4) There was immediate need for professional supervision under a compulsory Supervisory Union Law.

(5) Minimum standards of school curriculum must be set and the length of the school year must be 34 weeks or longer.

GREAT SCHOOL LAW

A favorable state-wide climate among citizens and mounting public pressure forced action on the Legislature and New Hamp-

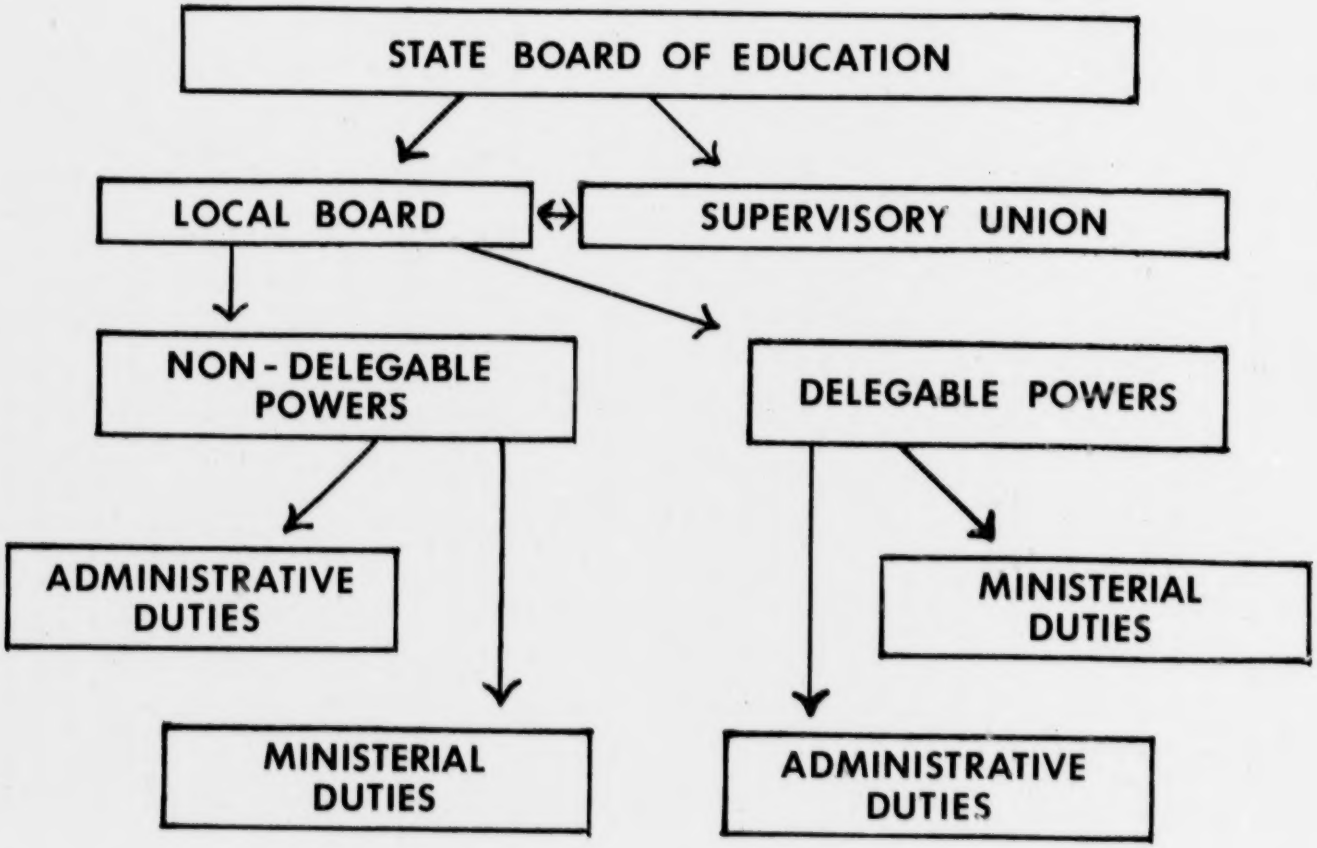
shire's "Great School Law" was enacted in 1919, forming for the first time a state system of education which abolished nearly 300 years of hodge-podge, flimsy and abortive local educational practices. Education in New Hampshire had, at last, emerged from the woods. Although, the "Great School Law" has been altered, amended and improved in the past 50 years, the basic principles of the act formed a firm foundation for today's architecture of educational law and the educational history that is still to be made.

These are the ingredients that have been mixed into the New Hampshire educational stew over more than three centuries. Like any good recipe, the more meat, the richer the ragout and the New Hampshire variety has had varying degrees of palatability, but it has always reflected the social environment in which it has functioned. The New Hampshire populus has gone through 300 hard, lean years in which society has changed education and education has changed society. There is no such position as the status quo. Past educational history has proved this and future history will substantiate it. Schools are never a fixed tradition—but ever changing for the better and the good of mankind.

KEEP IT LEGAL

World War I is within the living memory of much of New Hampshire's citizenry. Since this conflict fomented the enactment of the Great School Law of 1919, which placed education under a strong central control for the first time, many residents have been exposed to domination of all school matters by the local school board. Traditional New Englanders cling firmly to ancestral customs and this change of management is not always understood or supported even today. This position is evidenced from views throughout the state expressed by taxpayers in annual district meetings by those who were reared in the old tradition or absorbed it by contact.

Although, it may seem unnecessarily redundant to clarify such a basic ideas, it is absolutely essential to be familiar with the local board's legal status before any member can function effectively and within the framework of the law. There can be no misunderstanding —the local school board is an agent of the state in every legal sense of the word. It must operate within the constitutional structure of all pertinent state laws and adhere to all policy created by the State Board of Education. Court action can be brought against individual members who fail to comply with such laws and regulations. Fortunately, board membership is not as ominous nor rigid as the above


STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION
LOCAL BOARD
SUPERVISORY UNION
NON - DELEGABLE POWERS
DELEGABLE POWERS
ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES
MINISTERIAL DUTIES
MINISTERIAL DUTIES
ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES

facts may imply. There is great freedom of action giving boards the flexibility to act independently within the complexities of varying community problems.

Under the regulations of the State Board of Education, the powers and duties of school boards are eight in number, and fairly simple. The complete legal wording can be found in New Hampshire Revised Statutes Annotated Relating to Public Schools. (This "bible" should be in the hands of every school board member and may be obtained through the office of the Superintendent of Schools or directly from the State Department of Education in Concord. The lengthy title of this book is condensed to RSA for reference purposes.)

A brief version of the eight rules is as follows:—

(1) Boards may set teacher's salaries and terms of employment and hire teachers who have been nominated by the Superintendent. The board may refuse to elect any nominee and ask for further nominations—but the board can not initiate action to employ a teacher. This regulation is a check and balance to promote and perserve quality of the teaching staff, since it requires in the first instance, professional approval by the administrative head of the district before the candidate can be nominated, and in the second instance, the board has the power to either elect or reject the nominee.

(2) All purchases must be authorized by the board.

(3) The board has the full power to employ all non-teaching personnel, such as custodians, cafeteria workers, office secretaries and similar employees. It may, also, delegate this job to the Superintendent.

(4) The board has full responsibility for provision and proper maintenance of buildings and school related transportation.

(5) The school board must annually prepare a budget of school expenditures.

(6) Board meetings for the transaction of business must be held at least once in two months. The Superintendent must be present and a written record must be kept of the procedures.

(7) The board must carry out all powers and duties described by constitutional law or State Board regulation that are not committed or delegated to the Superintendent.

(8) The board has the responsibility to approve curriculum, which must meet the state minimum requirements.

These eight rather broad regulations make up the basic format within which the board must carry on its work and make its decisions. The book of public school statutes (RSA) contains over 200 pages of specific laws and regulations clearly indexed for ready reference. The important point is to know that RSA exists and that copies are always available.

These eight rather broad regulations make up the basic format within which the board must carry on its work and make its decisions. The State Board may revise or amend the powers and duties from time to time. It is incumbent upon the local board to check the latest edition of the Revised Statutes for any variations. The book of public school statutes (RSA) contains over 200 pages of specific

laws and regulations clearly indexed for ready reference. The important point is to know that RSA exists and that copies are always available.

So, above the local board in the educational power structure is the State Board of Education, consisting of seven members responsible for all questions concerning grades one through twelve plus the state's technical institutes. The duties of this regulatory body are not especially of interest to local school boards, but, the powers of the State Board of Education are extremely important.

As agents of the State Board, local boards are specifically bound under the definition of powers (RSA 185:5) which states "It may make all rules and regulations necessary for the management of its. . .agents." and "It shall be the duty of school boards. . .to comply with the rules and regulations of the State Board."

Within the same definition of authority the State Board is given "the same powers of management, supervision and direction over all public schools in this state as the directors of a business corporation have over its business, except as otherwise limited by law." This panorama of control builds the roof over the heads of the local boards——but, also, does allow for considerable latitude between the floor and the ceiling.

KING DECISION

The authority of the Board to make policy was upheld in a landmark decision by Superior Court Judge John W. King in a 1970 case (Ashley v. Rye School Board), which challenged this perogative. The decree draws a clear division of responsibility between boards, district voters and budget committees. The decree applies to a specific set of circumstances so any extension of these findings into other circumstances would only be done with advice of legal counsel.

However, the King Decision says in effect that the Budget Committee or the District voters may cut down, for example, a total appropriation and by such reduction, restrict or curtail or eliminate a specific program. However, it can not restrict each item or any single item by footnote or express intra-budget transfer, or particularly eliminate any educational program. A Board cannot be prevented from persisting in a program, if it so chooses—but the practical wisdom of the Board should be applied to the political implications of persisting in a program that does not have district support.

The heart of the King Decree says that the functions of the School District (legal voters) are financial and fiscal and not administrative or policy making. The School District cannot substitute its opinion on the actual operation of a school for that of a School Board. A District's primary, if not sole, function is the preparation of a budget and not the formation of school room policy or the duties of school house personnel.

The local school board is not only controlled from the top by statutes and the state board but is responsive to the voters of the school district which it represents as executive agent. The district

voters can not make policy, as that is an inviolable right of the board members, but they do in the final analysis hold the purse strings. It is the school district that has the legal power (RSA 194:3). to raise the money for both capital outlay and current expenditures. Thus, it might be said that the local board is "A Servant of Two Masters".

As a legally constituted administrative unit of both state and local government, school boards are given the mandatory, directory and permissive powers to carry out the educational program of their district in legally held meetings. As long as they abide by the statutes and have adequate financial support from the district taxpayers, then the scope and quality of the educational proposal mirrors the philosophy of the board.

With all these restrictive sounding conditions, a school board might rightfully ask why all New Hampshire schools are not prototypes? Where is there room for original thought or imaginative ideas?

DISCRETIONARY POWERS

In going over the statutes, many of the laws and regulations are extremely specific and need only routine performance by the board to fulfill the legal obligations, but other laws are written in broad, general language allowing for individual interpretation. How the board translates these general laws is legally called discretionary powers, in which a board may decide or act according to its own judgment provided such decisions or acts are discreet and prudent.

Through this latitude of discretionary authority, a board has its greatest opportunity to provide quality education and adjust to the rapidly changing social and economic conditions that are taking place in so many New Hampshire communities. The exercise of these discretionary powers is reflected in the nature of district schools and measures quite accurately two factors:—

—First, the financial support which the district is willing and able to provide for education, and,

—Second, the resourcefulness of the board members in using their freedom of judgment or choice.

There are only a couple of guidelines which determine the limits of discretionary powers. Such action can not be capricious so that the motives are not apparent nor adequate and the other, that the policy can not be discriminatory in any form so that it makes a distinction in favor of or against a person or thing, especially in violation of human rights.

The simple rule of thumb for the application of discretionary powers is:— if a proposed policy is within the framework of the statutes and the board can act in good faith, then it should do so. In any use of authority which might be questionable, an opinion may be sought from the attorney-general's office through S.B.E. The Attorney-General has no statute authority in educational matters but the advice of his office should be regarded with greatest respect because a person aggrieved by school board policies may appeal the

case to the Commissioner of Education, the State School Board, or the courts of justice for relief.

It is easier to avoid an injustice than to right one. The Attorney-General is the legal advisor to the State Department of Education and must always make himself available to state agencies for opinions or interpretations of educational laws; for legal application of statutes; and for court decisions in matters of controversy. Although, his position lacks legal force, at the local level, it is the next best thing to a statement of law from the courts.

It is, also, essential for a school board to retain a lawyer to act as its legal advisor in all matters which might require such professional skill. This is especially critical in the writing of warrant articles that propose to borrow money by the issuance of bonds or notes or articles that propose a new service to the district. Then, of course, there is always the possibility that a board may sue or be sued.

These are only a few areas for legal advice. There are many more. As our population explodes and the task of running the public schools grows more profound with the expanding complexities of our society, the need for treading safely on legal ground increases in importance. Goodly numbers of smaller school districts in the state of New Hampshire are being consolidated into larger units. The entire field of education is groaning with growing pains. This means that board members need expert advice and help.

BOARD POWERS

To avoid legal entanglements, school boards must fully understand the difference between those transactions which someone outside the board may perform (delegable powers) and all board duties, which can not be assigned to an outside person or group (non-delegable powers). To comprehend the distinction between these powers, there are four words in the jurisprudential vocabulary which require translation into layman's language:— judgment, discretion, administrative and ministerial.

Judgment is when a school board pronounces an opinion or makes a decision or performs an act of a formal or authoritative nature which conforms to law and justice, such as the signing of building contracts or hiring a school principal.

Discretion is the latitude of decision which a board enjoys in setting policy based on circumstances according to judgment but not expressly controlled by fixed rules or laws, such as permitting a foreign exchange student to attend a district school tuition free.

Administrative is the board's power to direct a legally constituted authority, such as a superintendent of schools, to manage or conduct school affairs.

Ministerial functions are services rendered by an agent without regard to, or without the exercise of, his own discretion upon the propriety of the service to be performed. An example would be an appointment of a building committee to find the facts and submit a report to the board.

With these four avenues of authority clearly distinguished a school board should have little trouble keeping their feet on solid ground and avoid litigation by illegal or unreasonable action.

One area of assistance is the formation of advisory committees, both formal and informal. Such groups, legally called Ad Hoc committees, are appointed for the special purpose of fact finding in a limited field. A building committee is probably the most common form. The legal use of such committees must be fully understood by school boards before using this type of auxilliary assistance. There are duties which can and can not be performed under the statutes.

In actual practice, such lay groups have no legal decision making authority. Their duties can only be the gathering of facts and the making of recommendations to the board based on the accumulated information. Any decisions legally binding on the school districts must be made by the board. These in legal jargon are called non-delegable powers.

Nor can a board delegate authority to an individual member. For example, to select and purchase a school site must be a collective action, the board must act collectively. It can not ask one member to pick out a piece of land, take an option, or sign any purchase agreements. A board can exercise its power only in a regular or special meeting with at least a quorum of its members present. No one member or minority of members may act separately from the board.

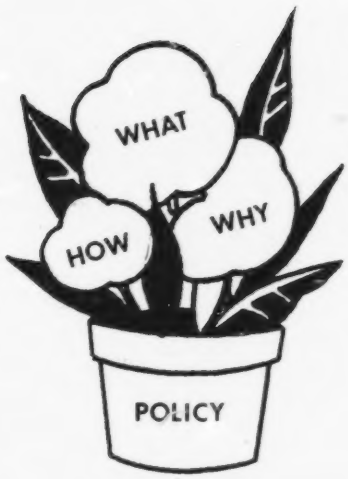
New Hampshire school boards have one other relationship for which they have legal responsibilities. This is the supervisory union, which in a large city may be one district but is usually a combination of smaller districts into an administrative and supervisory unit. Boards within a union operate quite independently of each other but share the services of a superintendent, assistant superintendent, business manager, teacher consultant and the administrative services rendered by a central office and staff.

The reason for supervisory unions is to form an adequate financial base for professional supervision and service for all public schools, regardless of size and equalized valuation, in the conduct of supervisory union affairs, each school board member from all districts composing the union acts as the representative of his district with individual voting power.

Larger districts within a union have additional voting power calculated on the number of teachers employed in the district. Such extra votes must be cast as a block following a poll of the board. Any legal decisions made by school boards at supervisory union meetings are irrevocably binding upon each district and any sums of money appropriated must be raised by the district on an equalized basis. All union business must be conducted within existing statutory provisions.

Within the union, it has been found effective and efficient for all districts to cooperate in areas of mutual interest such as the school calendar, salary guides, curriculum coordination, Federal funds, central purchasing and the like.

In brief summary, School Boards are agents of the state and derive their powers and duties from state law and State School Board regulations. They have the same relationship with the supervisory union being controlled by state law. School Boards have two forms of power:— delegable and non-delegable. The delegable powers are either judicial or discretionary while the non-delegable are administrative and ministerial. These are the basic legal responsibilities with which every school board member should be familiar to properly execute the duties of his office.

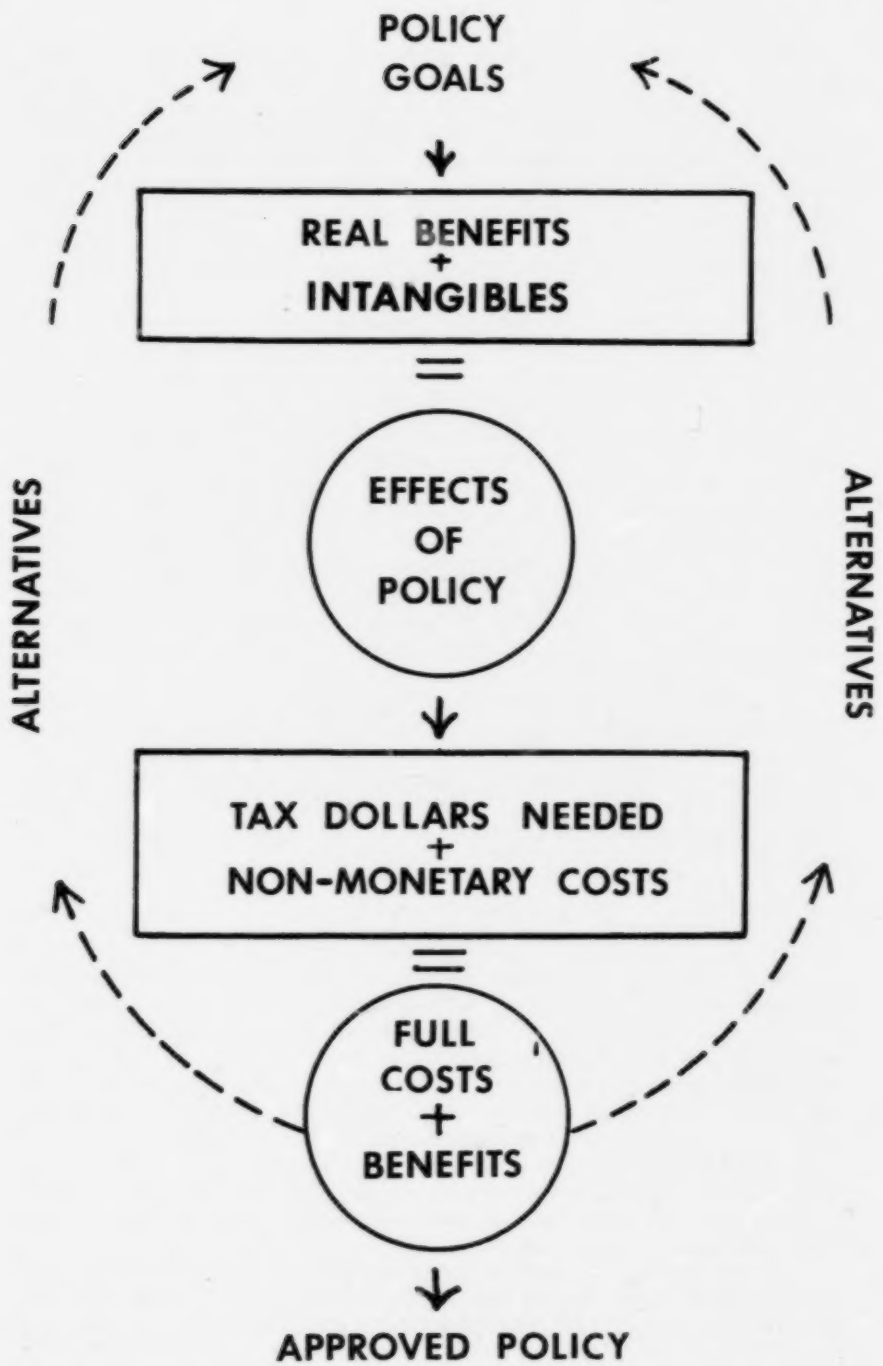


POLICY—THE WHAT, WHY AND HOW

Policy—policy—policy! This single word is met at every turn in school board affairs. What does it mean? Why is it important? How is it formed? The answers to these critical questions are essential to good boardsmanship since school board members are, first, policy makers and, second, have the responsibility to guarantee the execution of all policies by their own actions or by delegating authority through the superintendent of schools. The entire educational system functions in response to established operational policies. Policy creates authority—the right to command or act. As a democratic administrative tool authority must be indivisibly linked with responsibility. The two should go hand in hand because responsible authority is not an end but a means to the common good. Through it schools are shaped!

POLICY

What is policy? Legally the local school board may only do those things which the state directs, or permits it to do within the state's constitutional provisions. Emerging from the word "permits" is the local board's discretionary power. Acting with discretion—which may not be capricious or arbitrary—the local school board develops the policies which individualize each school district. Through them, the frame which encloses the educational program is defined. The term "frame" conjures up the thought of confinement, and indeed it is the function of policy to confine action. However, a frame is, also, an enclosure with room for movement. Thus the board and the school administrators charged with implementing policy may exercise judgment in its execution. A definition of policy is:— guide for discretionary action.


POLICY
GOALS
REAL BENEFITS
+
INTANGIBLES
=
EFFECTS
OF
POLICY
ALTERNATIVES
ALTERNATIVES
TAX DOLLARS NEEDED
+
NON-MONETARY COSTS
=
FULL
COSTS
+
BENEFITS
APPROVED POLICY

RULE

School boards should make a clear distinction between "policy" with its judgmental latitude and "rules" which are precisely formulated or restricted directions for action. There is no room for judgment in a rule. It must be executed exactly as written. For example, "Schools may charge admission fees to athletic events" is policy because it leaves the decision whether or not to charge admission up to the proper administrator. However, "A one dollar admission fee must be charge to non-students attending games" is a rule since it specifically states how much—who—and to what—with no exceptions. A rule is all black and white—no gray areas. A brief definition of a rule is:— specification of required action.

BY-LAW

There are sub-rules which control the local and internal affairs of the board. These sub-rules are called "by-laws." They apply only to the orderly procedure which a school board follows in conducting its business and are not to be confused with"policy." For example, "Two members will constitute a quorum—The first item on the agenda will be the minutes of the previous meeting—The annual meeting will be held on the first Tuesday in March——"etc. are all "by-laws" since they regulate the government of its board members and its dealings with the citizenry. Therefore, a "by-law" is a regulation for the local and internal affairs of the board.

Why is policy important? All school boards should sincerely wish to operate legally, effectively and efficiently. Yet many, many school boards still conduct business without a set of written policies—in full or in part—thus exposing themselves to legal liabilities, misinterpretation of objectives through poor communications, and inefficient management of school affairs by improper delegation of authority.

LEGALLY

Why is policy important legally? In the eyes of the courts, a school board is a corporation with the right to sue and be sued. In the absence of written records, a board may be required by the courts to prove precedence for its actions. This may be difficult or even impossible to establish. For example, it had been customary for a high school to have a public speaker at its graduation exercises. However, between commencements the school board had decided that graduation was a day that belonged wholly to the students —that public speakers would not be part of the program, limiting addresses to the class salutatorian and valedictorian. It had revised its written policy to this effect.

Unfortunately, the senior class, unaware of the new policy and without consulting its advisor, had asked a highly controversial speaker to deliver the commencement address. The request was accepted and the news released to the press to the embarrassment

of the administration and the board. It then became the duty of the board to ask the speaker to withdraw. However, being controversial, emotions ran high among several parents who threatened the board with court action to permit the speaker to appear.

In such circumstances, the board would not have been able to establish precedence for its current action where it had been the custom in the past to invite a public speaker to graduation. Yet, when the board was able to present its written and approved policy for "no public speakers," all legal liability dissolved and action was dismissed.

It is impossible to determine when — or under what circumstances—legal problems may arise. The written and approved board policies—if they can not be proven arbitrary or capricious—make powerful and convincing evidence in any legal action concerning school business.

POLICY EFFECT

How are written policies effective? A static-free line of communication should remain open at all times from the board through the superintendent to the outermost reaches of school business and return. A verbalized—or unwritten—policy suffers in translation every time it is passed from one person to the next. It is like the old parlor game of "Gossip," where a story is whispered around a circle of people. What usually comes out at the end is so revised and distorted that it in no way resembles the original version. So too, with policy! But when a policy is at hand to see and read, there should be no misunderstanding of the board's intentions. Then the person—or persons—responsible for coverting the board's words into action may act clearly and with confidence.

POLICY EFFICIENCY

How are written policies efficient? Smooth, businesslike operation of school affairs requires that an action decision be made by the staff member—professional or non-professional—who is directly responsible for seeing that any particular action takes place. A set of written policies permits decision making at the point closest to the problem, since the board's objectives are there in print to serve as guidelines assuring the decision maker that he is acting for the board.

An example might be a community relations policy dealing with the distribution of notices. Since a school represents a sizable captive audience, schools are often plagued with requests to circulate notices through the student body which serve to promote private profit or have partisan political or religious significance. By placing a simple two sentence policy in the hands of a front office secretary stating that "Only notices relating to school sponsored activities may be distributed to students. Any exceptions, must have the approval of the school board." can settle most such requests on the

spot rather than have such business come up the line from the secretary to the principal to the superintendent to the board—and then the decision reversing the course back to the person making the request.

POLICY FORMATION

How is policy formed? The writing of policy always follows the same formula whether it is the simple policy just stated or a complex one requiring many paragraphs. Policy formation begins with objectives. What are the goals which a board seeks to accomplish? What guidelines and what administrative controls are necessary to effectively reach these goals? When all the key points have been gathered together and formulated into a policy, the board should apply three tests before final approval:— Is it practical? Is it legal? Is it in the best interest of the student body, the staff and the public?

In drafting policy, a board should request the advice and cooperation of the professional staff. Since these are the people who must implement the board policy, their contributions to its formation can be invaluable. Even then, there is no guarantee of immediate success because any policy must endure a period of trial and error. Reaction to policy may uncover unanticipated weaknesses.

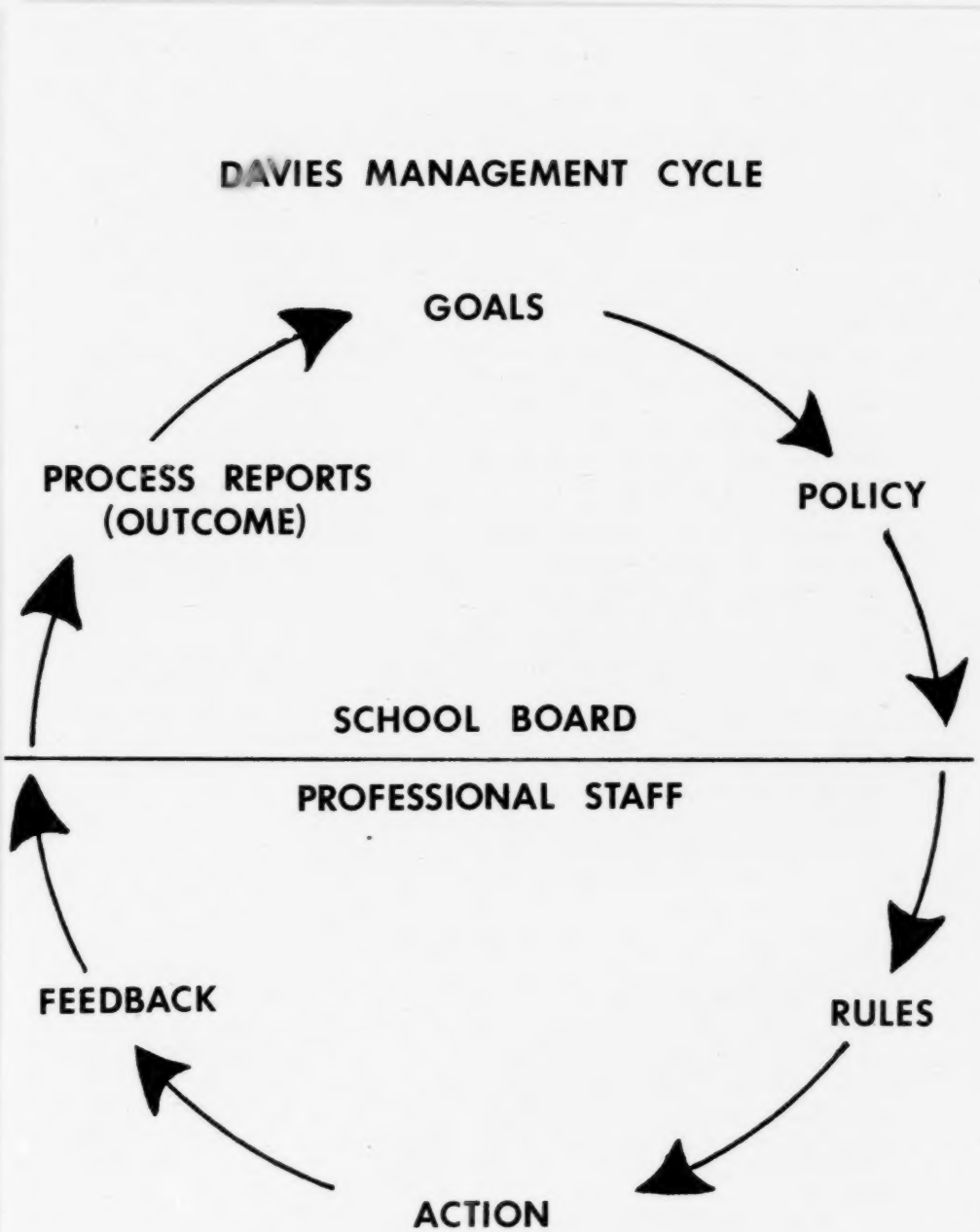
Many policies have rules and regulations written into them for administrative control by the professional staff. For example, a policy to provide maternity leave for teachers might require a health release from a physician prior to return to duty. This is inflexible and, therefore, a rule within a policy.

DAVIES' MANAGEMENT CYCLE

Dr. Daniel R. Davies, one of America's outstanding authorities in school board policy, has conceived a schematic management cycle which clearly defines the route which policy takes as it flows from the board into the professional administrative areas, then circles back to the board.

The Davies' Management Cycle (Illus p 26) begins with the school board's goals (G) for shaping and operating some phase of the educational program. Out of goals, policy (P) is formulated which has been designed to fulfill the board's objectives. Policy then moves into the professional semi-circle where rules and regulations (R) are written into the policy which will facilitate application and decision making at the lowest possible level. When the policy is implemented, action (A) occurs.

All action will produce results of some sort—for better or worse. The information flowing out of action is called feedback (FB) which permits the professional staff to evaluate the action and prepare a process report. The accumulated data from feedback is gathered together by the superintendent into a product report (PR) and the outcome communicated to the school board bringing the Management Cycle back to its starting point.


DAVIES MANAGEMENT CYCLE
GOALS
POLICY
RULES
ACTION
FEEDBACK
PROCESS REPORTS
(OUTCOME)
SCHOOL BOARD
PROFESSIONAL STAFF

POLICY MAKING

Subscribing to any other policy service does not absolve a local board from any further attention to policy. No such basic system is the be-all and end-all of policy meeting. It only supplies a solid base from which to function. Beyond basic forms, every district has its own localized problems which must be written into policy. It is through these individualized policies that a board may distinguish itself and clearly identify the district's educational program.

There is an important moral responsibility which attends policy making that each board member must approach with an open mind and a depth of understanding. The role of public education has historically been to unite society within a framework of common interests and common values. There are both philosophical and practical responsibilities connected with the role.

The chain of events which a school board should follow in progressing from Goals to Policy in fulfilling these responsibilities (Illus P 22) begins with an examination of the potential effects of a policy. These results take two forms—real or tangible benefits and the non-tangible benefits, such as the upgrading effects of an adult education program upon community life.

A board should then study the full cost of implementing a policy—to determine the number of tax dollars necessary plus the non-monetary costs such as space and time. With both effects and full cost examined, the complete picture appears. Then if the benefits plus cost are not feasible, a board should stop this side of adopting a policy and return to goals to put alternatives through the same study pattern. A board should be satisfied with all ramifications of a policy before approving it.

A MONEY SAVER

The greatest money saver a board may have is a complete set of written policies. It saves **TIME** and to a school board time **IS** money, since 80% of every educational dollar buys somebody's time. It will be the administration, the teachers, the non-professional staff of whomever to use up that tax dollar. Eighty cents out of every tax dollar spent on schools is committed to buying someone's services. A simple device like a set of written policies can expedite and maximize these services and the savings to the district are substantial.

The efficiencies accruing to a district from a set of written policies result from being able to delegate the implementation—in writing—of every task to its proper level. There is no movement of repetitious decision making up and down the chain of command. There are many other benefits—especially in communicating with the administration, staff, students, and the public—that are possible with written policies beside saving money. Yet with this technique for making maximum use of tax dollars, only a small percentage of

New Hampshire districts, at this point in time, have developed such an instrument.

The reasons are obvious. Bringing together in writing all the policies of a district—codified and indexed for easy reference—is a complex and time consuming job. No school board has either the time or the talent for doing it. Nor can the Superintendent, in his already overburdened role, find those extra hours. There are other less significant reasons, as an unwillingness by boards to commit their program to writing where it can "all hang out" or lack of capable leadership or the cost of doing the job or the current 30% turn-over in board members in New Hampshire.

However, there is outside help available to school boards. The New Hampshire School Boards Association (NHSBA) can provide professional assistance to a district wanting to develop the original base set of policies or a district wanting to up-date existing policies. The most difficult job is the first one where a district must start from scratch. Once this difficult task has been completed, the revision, modification or updating of policies becomes an ongoing board routine. Every time a board makes a decision it either alters an existing policy or creates a new one. It then becomes simple for the Superintendent to make these changes or additions immediately by incorporating them into the basic set.

HOW TO DO THE JOB

The preliminary step for the board is to examine the state of repair—or disrepair—of its current written policies. Are they orderly, organized, codified and indexed for easy access? Are they up-to-date legally? Are policies, rules and by-laws properly separated? Do they reflect current and future needs and objectives of the district? Do the policies cover all existing and/or potential problems? In other words, can the present set of written policies efficiently do the job of running and shaping the schools?

The chances are nearly 100% that some work must be done, ranging from developing a complete manual to minor revisions. As with any piece of business, the expense is reflected by the amount of necessary work involved. The second step then is to make a cost determination. The Superintendent—with or without assistance from the NHSBA or from a commercial policy service agency—can determine the budget requirements. The amount of money needed to do the job should be entered into the budget under the heading of "Board Expenses" or through a special article in the warrant—unless, of course, other funding is available to do the job. By asking voters to approve the program and appropriate the necessary funds, the board has the opportunity to explain the project and point out how a manual of board policies can save the district money while at the same time answering the public demand for accountability.

Once funding for the undertaking has been assured, the next step is the appointment of a Director for the program. Experience

has shown that the Director should be "in-house"—preferably a current member of the administrative staff with a thorough knowledge of the district's characteristics, needs and present objectives. The Director must be freed from present full-time duties in order to devote, at least, half-time to the Policy Program. In addition adequate secretarial help should be assigned to the project. The board might expect the job to take anywhere from three months to a year to complete—depending, of course, on the enormity of the undertaking.

Policy writing is a special form of expression, calling for crisp, clear prose that is free from ambiguities. A policy will be read and must be understood by many persons at all levels of responsibility so there can be no misinterpretation of the intent. All policies must conform to state and federal laws which places an additional burden on the writer.

It is not essential that the project Director have any previous experience in organizing and codifying school policies because professional help is available to assist the Director is setting guidelines and reviewing content. In preparing the project budget, consideration should be given to the inclusion of consulting services.

The NHSBA can provide a professional consultant to the district—or refer the district to a consulting service: There is, also, an educational policies reference manual and handbook which can be purchased from the National School Boards Association, State National Bank Plaza, Evanston, Illinois 60201. In addition, there are several independent publishers of such materials and resources.

In most instances, it is important for the district to hire the services of a consultant who is familiar with New Hampshire problems and laws to assist in organizing the total program; to serve as a resource in determining the legality and applicability of policies; to review and edit the rough draft of policies prior to submission to the board for action; and to aid in properly codifying and indexing policies, rules and by-laws during the assembly of the manual.

If a board is not now operating the district with a complete set of written policies, there should be no delay in getting the project underway. The constantly recurring demand for accountability is convincing enough reason to proceed without delay. The board that is willing to put policies, rules and by-laws into writing for public examination demonstrates its voluntary option to be publicly held accountable for the educational performance of the schools and the management of the district's business activities: It is the most effective weapon available for diminishing and blunting the "anti-school" critics, while at the same time reinforcing and informing the "pro-school" public.

DECISION MAKING PROCESS

The major work load of any school board—apart from informational and ceremonial duties—requires decision making. This process can range in importance from hiring a new superintendent to painting the teacher's lounge. The very heart of boardmanship is the abil-

ty to make decisions that are fair, reasonable, and in the best interest of the district. Many are simple and routine, while others can test the wisdom of Solomon. Yet, however simple the decision might seem to be, it can contain pitfalls. It behooves a board to use utmost care in decision making regardless of its seeming unimportance.

What are some of the steps a board should follow in making decisions?

Cost

Price it out! The budget serves as a coordinating tool and has a major effect on a decision. Money talks—and much decision making in education means talking with or about money. It is the key vehicle for identifying the issues for or against a policy change. In discussing a policy, a board must talk about resources because you can not ask any superintendent to do a job without giving him the appropriate resources—both human and material. Price it out and say, "This is what it is going to cost!" If the price is right—and all the other factors are favorable—you go ahead and do it.

In determining the cost of a decision, the financial examination must be broad in scope, including consideration of the start-up costs and the future costs. If the policy is long range, a board can not shut off its fact-finding with the first year. The implied effects on the future are an important part of the "pricing". For example, Federal funds are often available to partially support new programs—but generally are withdrawn after two or three years. Can your district afford to pick up the tab when outside funds have dried up? If not, then the program should never be introduced.

What will be the costs of materials, supplies and other fixed overheads? Which of these costs will be recurring annually and which may be depreciated over a period of time, such as typewriters for use in a business education course? What are the costs in human resources: a teacher's time—an aide's time—a supervisor's time—a student's time? What are the other human resources that become part of the program?

What are the spatial needs and what are the maintenance costs in terms of heat, light, water, and upkeep? Will there be travel and insurance costs? Will it be a program that will be replacing an existing program that will be faded out? If so, what will be the cost differential between the new and the old? The questions are endless but a board has a clear duty to explore every facet of the budgetary impact of any decision which contains a money factor. First—price it out!

Impact

An equally important factor in decision making—other than financial—is the relationship of the policy under consideration to the needs of the district. The social impact of specific educational decisions on the student—the staff—and the district as a whole must be evaluated in advance of reaching any board decision. How will the new policy affect the delicate balance between the educational and other social systems of the community.

The educational process does not invariably produce results compatible with district needs. For example, an increased emphasis on technical and vocational education may do little to improve performance in technical roles or even channel manpower into productive occupational roles. Improperly directed programs may generate new aspirations and expectations which can not be fulfilled in the existing social framework of the district. This educational failure can lead to frustration, alienation and dissatisfaction with the whole system. So it becomes critical to closely examine the short term and long range implications of any new policy. What are the rewards? What are the consequences? How will the entire social structure benefit?

The board's judgment upon the impact of any decision should not be "seat-of-the-pants" or unilateral. It must be made on hard data and thoughtful projection of the implications. Improvements in the social structure of a district may be systematically related to schools—to the quality of the response to these demands—and to the impact of the educational process on the change-oriented behavior of the students. Thus it becomes critical in making decisions to evaluate the total effect in terms of social results, as well as, in terms of dollars and cents.

Moral Responsibility

School board's are morally responsible for meeting the needs of a pluralistic society, whether it means providing skills or helping people to find themselves. The needs and aspirations of society change rapidly, so boards must respond accordingly with matching speed. Education has the major role but, can not be all things to all people, in determining the health and vitality of any society and the public welfare is in jeopardy, if a board does not desire responsibly to improve the social environment. There never will be any best way to educate—only better ways. So hopefully decision making will be constantly flexible. The possibility of substantial change in the educational process implies a need to gather all available information and seek out experienced documentation before reaching a decision.

The Decision

Having become armed with the hard facts—the costs and the social significance—of a recommended policy change, how do individual members of a board arrive at a "yea" or "nay" decision? The legal structure of the board prevents any one member from seizing control. All decisions of the board must be made in a legally called meeting and reflect the majority opinion of those members present and voting. No single board member has the legal status to act outside of official meetings in policy-making—but, of course, the individual has lots of power under the umbrella of free debate. Any single member may reasonably argue either side of an issue in order to persuade the majority of the value of his point of view.

But when the issue has been fully debated, the final decision is always the ultimate responsibility of the majority of the board—and

it becomes incumbent upon each individual member—whether they held a dissenting opinion or not—to support the final decision. It would be hoped that most all board decisions would be unanimous. If differences of opinion do exist, it would be hoped that they could be fully resolved or, at least, compromised so the results might be satisfactory to all parties.

Certainly, splits will occur on a decision that can not easily be reconciled. Yet when a dissident board member carries the case to the public, he can cause irreparable damage to the entire school system. This sort of reaction is not responsible boardmanship. If a minority member can not in good conscience support the decision of the board, it should not become a public issue in which he sets up a divided camp in the board.

Before acting in this manner, the minority member should explore every avenue of reaching a peaceful solution by using available outside resources such as the New Hampshire School Boards Association—the State Department of Education—or experienced board members from other districts who have reached similar decisions. Another alternative for the dissident is to allow a cooling off period and then resubmitting the issue to the board for re-consideration. Above all, be sure the conflict is not just a personality clash between himself and other persons. A board is a corporate body and is vested with corporate power which gives legal status to the majority decision.

That final decision is what counts—and it must be made with great care. Some decisions are by law limited to discussion by the board such as the purchase of land—or the hiring and firing of teachers—or the dismissal of a student—or other equally personal and private matters. Yet, on the other hand, the board may wish to involve many other people in making some decisions. In problems which could have far reaching effect upon the social structure of the district—or the conditions of employment of staff—or the future of students. A definite out-reach is needed to obtain a maximum amount of input.

The Technique

In laying the groundwork and accumulating facts and figures for decision making, the superintendent will be your richest source of information and advice. In fact, it will be the superintendent who initiates and supplies the data for virtually every need a board will have for making decisions. However, there will be a certain percentage of problems which will come to the board from the public—the student body—and the staff. The recent demands for accountability serve as signals that more and more out-reach will be necessary in resolving the issues.

The oldest—and still the most effective—out-reach technique is through an advisory committee or task force. The best way that a board can gain community-wide support for its program is by using ad hoc groups in the planning and fact-finding process. A broadly representative group can be a sounding board for public opinion—

but it, also, becomes vital for the board to get its signals early and take the initiative to create an advisory committee before an independent pressure group is formed in opposition.

The composition of any advisory committee would greatly depend upon the problem or project under consideration. For example, the review of an existing dress code in the schools by an outside group should have a majority representation of students—but probably, also, include parents and teachers for balance. Or, if the challenge is a review of curriculum, certainly teachers should be in the majority since it will be their responsibility to teach the courses. In other words, a board must analyze the issue and design an advisory committee to best meet the need. It should, however, be a combination that is flexible and mobile in its composition. Such a design provides information which the board can later translate into positive action.

A WARNING

A word of **warning!** The task force should not be used as an escape route by the board to avoid positive action. A force should only be created when there is a genuine need for its existence. It can not be used as a substitute for facing up to responsibility. The aim of any ad hoc committee is to provide a broader view of any given task or problem than can be obtained by the board acting independently. Purpose gives the task force concept, meaning and motivation.

Obviously, a school board can not perform every process for which it bears responsibility. Therefore, it must provide orderly ways to identify and sequence differentiated components, relationships, processes, program materials, operations research, enrollment projections, evaluations and costs. In much of this work the task force can be the solution. A spin-off bonus from utilizing a task force is that by involving other people in decision making, it clearly reveals the willingness on the part of the board to share the power of its authority. This act of sharing psychologically has a great unifying effect in the district.

A number of factors favor the use of advisory committees in appropriate decision making situations. It is a special "team" assembled to solve a short-term problem. Being temporary by design, it may easily be disassembled and those human components of the force are then returned to their former roles better informed about the system and reinforced by their envolvement in the actual decision making process. As Dr. Jack Kinder, Superintendent of Schools in Rochester, Minnesota says, "The aims of a task force must be clear—its duration must be limited—and its authority must be clearly understood at the outset."

In setting up a task force, the school board must provide the charge—set the time limits on the work to be accomplished—schedule meeting dates in advance—and establish a direct line of communication back to the board. Final recommendations, with supporting information, must be submitted in writing to the board, based on prior agreements and understandings. These agreements and under-

board and dilutes the possibility of later misunderstandings from either side.

The need to use a task force is one of school board judgment. Certainly, a board should make every decision that it possibly can through its own interpretation of available information and data. Any out-reach assistance should be discreet, prudent and politic. The practical expedient for determing the need for out-reach is whether or not it serves the best interest of the district. A board that is wise, sensible and well-advised will use the task force technique sparingly. By limiting its use, the board will heighten the importance of such out-reach groups as a decision making instrument.

BEING A DECISION MAKER

An individual board member should be aware of having been chosen by the district voters as one of their educational leaders. As a designated decision maker of such a large service organization—the public schools—a board member is constantly required to interact with people: students, staff, citizens and other board members. The success of this interaction depends greatly upon the understanding of one's own behavior in the role of decision maker.

To achieve distinction as an educational leader, one MUST enter the role with an open mind—an understanding heart—a high degree of moral integrity—and a flexible ego. In summary, a board member should:

******Understand the limits of one's own ego.
******Be able to manage and control the ego.
******Never compromise one's integrity.
******Have the courage to change one's mind, when the facts reveal a better solution than one's own.
******Judge one's leadership, not by the absence of problems, but how problems surface and are solved.
******Remember that the abuse of power violates the dignity of other people.
******Be willing to share one's power with those persons with whom one must interact.

GOAL SETTING AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT

No institution—including the public schools—can properly function without specific goals. Neither can any school board member realistically ignore the historical precedents that justified the establishment of public schools in America, even though the simple precepts of early education have now blossomed into a complex program that would stagger the imagination of John Calvin and his Puritan band. To pass along to succeeding generations the torch of freedom, the freeholders in the Massachusetts Bay Colony surveyed their needs and came up with three very simple educational goals.

First, to perpetuate the religious freedom that the Puritans had sacrificed so much to obtain, there was a need to be able to read

standings must be mutally established at the time a task force is assembled. This prior understanding is a key element in the success of any task force because it retains final authority with the school

the scriptures, so there was simple goal number one—reading. Second, to prepare legal papers, communicate ideas, and maintain contact with other enclaves in America, as well as, friends and relatives back in England children had to learn to write. And, third, in order to carry on trade and commerce the children had to be taught how to "cipher". Thus, out of genuine need for social survival, schools were organized to meet three specific goals: reading, writing, and arithmetic.

MEETING SPECIFIC NEEDS

More than 350 years has not changed the basic principle that determines the characteristics of an educational system: Every school district has been formed to meet fundamental needs that are essential for the improvement and reform of society. It is the responsibility of a school board to assess these needs and then design a set of educational goals—and sub-goals—that will meet them. Needs assessment and goal setting should be a primary and continuous order of business for every school board. All decision making can be meaningless without SPECIFIC goals because accumulated evidence of researchers prove that an "aimless" curriculum has the unvarying effect of diminishing a student's willingness and capacity to learn.

The key word in goal setting is SPECIFIC. Unless a goal has an explicit or precise definition, the chances of it ever being fulfilled are poor indeed. The New England Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges has files that are stuffed with "philosophical" statements, which have been submitted as part of the evaluation and accreditation process. These philosophies are written in the purple prose of educational jargon—and in far too many incidences duplicate each other word for word. They contain such vague statements as, "To promote the welfare of all children" or "To provide equal educational opportunity" or other equally indefinite phrases that do not deal with the real needs of a district, but only more deeply entrench the self-momentum of the system, adding to an already over-grown bureaucracy.

Broad objectives of this type have little value unless the terms used can be defined. What is the definition of the "welfare" of all children? Does it mean prosperity—successful careers—happiness—well-being? Then one must further ask, what is prosperity to the student from a wealthy background? A new automobile? A trip to Europe? A partnership in Daddy's law firm? How about the student from the ghetto? A new pair of shoes? All the ice cream he can eat? A trip to the city park? Undefinable and vague goals create more problems than they can solve. Goals—in order to have a chance to succeed—must be SPECIFIC.

To be SPECIFIC, a goal must be clearly aimed at a district problem—it must be measurable in the sense that its success or

failure will be known by the board and can be made known to the public—and, lastly, it must be attainable as a single major goal or through a series of sub-goals in order to prevent the frustration that accompanies the fruitless pursuit of the impossible dream.

Strategic decisions by school boards in selecting goals pose the difficult job of finding the right questions rather than the right answers. Once the right questions have been posed by the board, ing the right answers is delegated to the professional staff charged with the implementation of the curriculum. When the early Puritans has a need to perpetuate literacy, it became apparent that the colonists, in general, were either too busy or not qualified to teach others to read and write and cipher. So they asked the right questions: can a school be formed to do the job for them? It was then up to the public schools which had been created to perpetuate literacy to provide the right answers. The same is true of today's schools. The job of school board members—as the policy makers—is to set the goals and delegate their fulfillment to others who are qualified to so the job. What tests can a board apply to determine whether or not a goal is SPECIFIC?

SPECIFIC GOALS

1. Is there a need in the district?
2. Can the results be measured?
3. Can the goal be realistically reached?

For instance, the board determines that the students in School X have an average reading level that is one year below all other schools in the district and even though each school has equal library facilities, the number of books checked out and read per pupil in School X is, also, under par. The right questions by the board might be: Why are the students in School X below all others in reading achievement and interest? Can something be done to correct this problem?

If the superintendent admits this as a problem that can be corrected and the need does exist for improvement in School X—if he can tell the board that the use of standard achievement tests can measure any changes that take place in the reading level at School X—that the librarian can easily assess the number of books taken out and read by the students in School X—and that the goal can be obtainable but it might take two years to bring School X up to the district averages, then it becomes easy for the board to set these goals for School X and charge the professional staff with the responsibility for seeing that these goals are met in the time span allotted.

SPECIFIC goals can be developed in many, many areas in addition to improving the cognitive skills, such as reading and math. There are other areas that reflect the affective learning taking place in the system which can pass the need—measurability—and attainability tests. What about school attendance? If the rate of absenteeism is high, there must be something wrong with the school. Is there a problem with broken windows, graffiti on the walls and other forms of vandalism that reflect asocial behavior by students? Do

you have rapid turnover in teaching staff in excess of 15%? Do you average more than 30 students in a grade school class? Are you able to offer special programs for the exceptional child—the retarded—the gifted—the emotionally disturbed? Do you have a vocational program that provides skills which may be employed within your district? Do you have high quality teachers, who are doing exciting and motivating things with students? Does the district have a high drop-out rate? If so, are your offering alternative programs to help this statistic? Do you have good community support and envolvement? What is the ratio of voters to population in elections and attendance at public meeting? Do citizens willingly serve as volunteers and resource persons for the schools? Are you getting quality administration? What is the cost break-down between the cost of administration and the tax dollars spent on classroom education?

This is only a small sampling of the many areas where SPECIFIC goals can be set that meet the three basic criteria. The right questions must not only be asked about cognitive learning but all those other phases of the educational system that have an impact upon society. Educational goals—and multi-goals—are central to any discussion of boardmanship, but it is often necessary to remind individual board members that no one person is either qualified—or entitled—to set the goals for everyone in the system. The risk of failure is maximized in goal settings, if all available information is not gathered and evaluated in a collaborative effort by the full board. There is a need to achieve a balance of power among the various interests affected by any particular goal. This means a board must seek wider and ever-increasing participation in the setting of common goals.

GROUP EFFORTS

The resentments which accompany ready-made, unilateral goals being forced upon those who are to be affected by them can be blunted through increasing the base of decision making whenever and wherever practical. Involvement of those to be affected by a goal increases the chances of success—of responsibility to be assumed—because any interchange will allow problems to surface. Out of this open dialogue, alternative ways of reaching a goal will develop—different ways of doing what a system should do in order to become what it wants to be.

How can a school board access a wide variety of people at all levels in either determining needs or setting goals? There are a number of ways, such as public hearings, questionnaires, ad hoc committees and plain face-to-face dialogue. However, there is one interesting technique for gathering information in a democratic manner from a broad base of public and/or professional opinion. For lack of a better phrase, it will be called Group Decision Making.

Anyone who has ever served on an educational committee has watched a "pecking order" always develop in which the dominant personalities will monopolize the discussion and strongly influence the committee's action. In the meantime, the less assertive members are shut out of the participation.

Group Decision Making equalizes this disparity by allowing persons from all power levels and even degrees of group skill to make input equally and without threat. It works like this: If a schoolboard wished to determine the educational needs of a district and select goals from the information gathered it could use "Group Effort" as an instrument. The technique can involve many or few persons—groups can be a homogeneous mixture of all taxpayers—or all students—or all teachers. Also, grouping can be heterogeneous to include a cross section of the district.

For example, a district is having difficulty in finding employment within the area for its non-college bound graduates. The question would be: What can the schools do in order to provide students with employable skills? To find the answers through "Group Effort", the board could bring together a heterogeneous group of 30 to 35 persons, broken down into a ratio of one-third local employers—one-third potential employees (students)—and one-third professional staff (teachers and administration).

As the process begins, the larger group of 30 to 35 should be broken down into three groups of ten or twelve for ease of management. Each of the three groups will be handled by a **non-participating** facilitator and a recorder. The facilitator will inform the group of the task at hand and describe the technique to be used. Blank filing cards—or pieces of paper—will be given out to each member of the group. No individual is allowed to speak—except to ask questions of the facilitator about procedure. A time limit is set—ten, fifteen, twenty or more minutes—and each member of the group is asked to write on a card, or a piece of paper, a brief, one-sentence statement of what the school can do to meet the need for developing employable skills and then continue to put down on additional cards, as many further statements as the time limit allows. There is no limit on the number of statements an individual can record during the time period, nor must the entries have any priority order at this point.

THE MASTER LIST

When the time period is completed, the facilitator will circle the group asking each member in turn to read a single item from those prepared. The recorder will number each item and write it on a large chalkboard or display paper so that everyone in the group can read the list of statements.

As the facilitator continues to circle the group taking one statement at a time, duplicate items are either combined with each other or the participant does not bother to read a statement that duplicates one already listed on the master sheet. For example, if a number of persons in the group had suggested a "work-study program in carpentry", it would only be entered once on the master list.

When every piece of input has been obtained from the group and the master list has been completed by the recorder, blank cards, or paper, are again passed out—and again, without a word of discussion of the master list—group members are asked to select a limited

number of items from the master list—say three, five, seven, or more—which each individual feels in his own judgment are the most important. Then a similar reading and recording process is repeated by the facilitator and recorder. The effect of this round is to reduce the master list to those items considered the most important.

After this step, the facilitator conducts a third round during which the members are asked to list in the order of priority the three items of their choice from the adjusted master list. As these items are then read off and recorded, each one is given a weighted score—such as three for number one priority, two for second choice, and one for third selection. As the results of the group selections are tabulated, the three items considered most important will be indicated by the ones having the three highest scores.

FINAL RATING

When it has been necessary to break the total number of people participating into two or more separate groups, the three top choices of each group are combined into a master master-list. The full number of participants are brought together to repeat step three in which priorities and weighted scoring are involved. The final result reflects to top ideas of the entire group.

The results of this "silent" technique are surprisingly accurate and unbiased, since everyone has had an equal opportunity to make input on an even-handed basis with every other member of the group. No dominant members have been able to influence the final decisions. "Group Decision Making" is a technique with many variations and applications limited only by the imagination of the board or staff using the method. The structure and form can be extremely flexible, making it a useful tool in the school board kit for goal setting. Not only can it be used for determing goals but can provide invaluable—and democratic—input in policy making, needs assessment and just information gathering.

Summary

******Schools can not function effectively without GOALS
******Educational goals must be based on district NEEDS
******Goals must be SPECIFIC
******Goals must be MEASURABLE
******Goals must be ATTAINABLE
******Goal setting must be cooperative and collaborative
******"Group Effort is a flexible technique for obtaining input for needs assessment, goal setting and policy making.

RUNNING SCHOOL BOARD MEETINGS— REGULAR, ANNUAL AND SPECIAL

Certainly, all school boards want to have efficient and meaningful meetings in which the business at hand is conducted effectively and with dispatch. Unfortunately, this is not always the case. Too often, there are many hours wasted on unimportant trivia and endless discussion of unrelated matters. A member may ask, "Why must our board meetings last so long?" There is no easy answer to this question because it depends so much upon the administrative talent of the presiding officer and the personalities of the board members. However, if a board wishes to improve the quality of its meetings, there are several things which can be done:—

AN AGENDA

A well-prepared agenda—sent to every member prior to the meeting—is an absolute must. It insures orderly conduct of the affairs; places the order of business in its proper framework; and provides advance warning of the business to be conducted. An agenda should begin with a review of the minutes of the previous meeting, followed by a current financial evaluation. Then a discussion of manifests comes before signing them for payment.

Administrative reports should be an item on the agenda. Such reports inform the board of events and action which have occurred since the prior meeting. A report can always be expected from the Superintendent of Schools—or his agent. Other reports depending upon board policy, may be received regularly—or intermittently—from the principals, the business manager, the teacher consultant or any other administrative staff member.

The agenda should then move into the area of new business, such as budget development, salary guides, equipment needs; new policy and the like. The final item should be setting the date, time and location of the next meeting.

An agenda will not insure a speedy meeting but it will help keep discussion to the prescribed format and permit the presiding officer to conduct business in an orderly manner.

REPORTS

In addition to an agenda, each board member should have before him at the conference table a copy of the minutes of the previous meeting; a reconciliation sheet that will give budgetary information at a glance; an outline of business to be discussed and acted upon; written reports from any active advisory committees or administrative staff; and any other data of value to the meeting. The well written report is one of the best methods of expediting a meeting. Even though the report may be read aloud by the chairman, the unnecessary questions are most often eliminated. Any questions are usually requests for additional information and explanation not appearing in the report.

Even with a good agenda and quantities of printed information at hand, a meeting can lose its forward motion, if the discussions become side-tracked to matters not under consideration—or if a board member delays an issue with repetitive arguments. The job of guiding the meeting falls squarely upon the shoulders of the presiding officer. The chairman sometimes must take a tough stand to cut off preoccupation with trivia; discussion not germane to the issue; and social conversation between members that diverts attention from the process of business.

PUBLIC COMPLAINTS

Dealing with public complainants can force unpleasant delays in a meeting. The job of controlling such situations, also, depends upon the presiding officer. A person or a group slated to appear before the board should be assigned a time. The board should see that their hearing begins as scheduled even if it means postponing present business under discussion.

Before any public complaint is heard, the individual should be introduced by the chairman to each member of the board, even though they might be previously acquainted. The complainant should then be tactfully advised that the board is ready to hear an uninterrupted statement of the complaint plus any suggestions which he might have for a remedy. After this, the board is given the opportunity to ask questions. When all pertinent information has been stated, the chairman should avoid useless repetition by diplomatically ending the discussion.

This can be done by thanking the complainant for appearing before the board; asking if there is anything new to be added which has not already been said; and then assuring the complainant that a thorough investigation will be made into the case, promising a written report and a decision from the board as quickly as possible. It should be made clear to the complainant that the board is not in a position to make a decision until all aspects of the case have been determined.

MINUTES OF MEETINGS

The importance of conducting meetings legally can not be over-emphasized—which among other requirements, means keeping of accurate records. As agents of the state, school board action is controlled by mandatory, permissive and directory legislation. Thus, the courts have held that local school boards can only act through their minutes. The records of all school board proceedings are an essential part of every meeting. The problems and difficulties which involve the board with a third party can be avoided by keeping complete and accurate minutes.

This places a burden of responsibility upon the board secretary and, also, upon the entire board when minutes of the previous meeting come up for review. Often in board meetings both the keeping of and approval of records are perfunctory—but the courts make no allowance for indifferent and careless performance. The approved minutes become the facts in a court of law. The accuracy of these facts depends upon the alertness of the board.

AMENDING MINUTES

If minutes are in error, they may be corrected by amendment only at the next subsequent meeting following the error and any corrections must speak the truth of what took place at the meeting in question. Amendments may not be made to reflect a change in mind, otherwise a third party might be prejudiced who acted in reliance upon the original meetings minutes.

It will be a comfort to the board secretary to know that the courts have always been lenient in regard to form and word usage in the minutes. A fair and reasonable interpretation is indulgently given to unskillfully drawn minutes by the courts, as long as the intent of board action may be clearly ascertained.

CONTENT OF MINUTES

A few items are important in all minutes:— names of those present, including the time of late arrivals; action on all communications to the board; committee reports and any action on them by the board; financial statements; reports of the Superintendent and other administrators, especially designating personnel changes—hiring, firing and retiring; any curriculum changes voted; policy changes or new policy approved; and the time and place set for the next meeting.

Boards must be aware that all meetings are open to the public and the press, which in turn makes board records open for public inspection with the right of reproducing, copying or photographing them. The notable exception to such public access is that a board is privileged to meet in executive session, if the discussion involves property matters or personnel. An important legal point which a board must fully honor is that executive session is for discussion ONLY. No action may be taken by a board while in executive ses-

sion. It must act publicly. It is not necessary to take minutes or notes of the discussion which takes place in executive session. As a result, the discussion-etc.—in executive sessions becomes equally privileged and may not be made public. Good records are essential to good administrative performance. They reflect the soundness of school policy. Write it down and file it!

THE RIGHT-TO-KNOW LAW

How secretive may a school board be in its deliberations? The answer is simple: NOT AT ALL! There are some minor exceptions in matters that might invade individual rights or give unfair advantage to persons whose interest are adverse to those of the community. Otherwise, **ALL** discussion and action must be open to the public.

Some boards are abusing and violating the Right-To-Know law (RSA 91-A). These infractions are generally not malicious or in flagrant disregard of the public interest but occur because of misunderstanding of its requirements. The consequence of infraction of the Right-To-Know law may be serious indeed and boards—and its individual members—expose themselves to costly legal action by an aggrieved person or persons. Every board member should become familiar with RSA 91-A and act only within its provisions. The purpose of the law is to assure openess in all board deliberations and actions. It, also, makes available public records to citizens for whatever reason!

The Attorney General has written guide-lines for conducting public proceedings in compliance with the Right-To-Know law and a copy of the opinion may be obtained from the office of the Attorney General in Concord. However, some important highlights from these guide-lines are worth accenting for board members.

- ****The law is **not** limited to regular board meetings—but applies to all proceedings of the board, such as, committee meetings, hearings or any transaction that might effect the public.
- ****Notice of **ALL** meetings and proceedings must be publicly posted 24 hours in advance—except for clearly definable emergencies.
- ****Every portion of every meeting must be open to the public.
- ****Executive sessions, which exclude the public, must only be confined to deliberations by and among **board members.**
- ****When any non-board member is participating or when information, evidence or testimony is received in any form, the public must be admitted.
- ****EXCEPTIONS to public discussion of an issue under the Right-To-Know law are:
  - A. Attorney-client privilege
  - B. Discussion regarding dismissal, promotion, compensation, hiring or discipline of public employees.
  - C. Matters likely to adversely affect the reputation of any student or person OTHER than a board member.
  - D. Consideration of the purchase, sale or lease of land.
- ****All final action by the board must be taken in public, and

may not be taken in executive session.

****EXCEPTIONS to action being taken in public on matters discussed in private are:

A. Decisions that would adversely affect the reputation of a person.

B. If public divulgence of information is likely to impair the effectiveness of action.

****Minutes of all meetings become permanent public records and must be promptly recorded and made open to the publics inspection within 72 hours of the action.

****Any NEW HAMPSHIRE citizen has a right to inspect all board records, including the employment contracts of teachers and all district employees.

****EXCEPTIONS from public inspection are:

A. Personal school records of pupils.

B. Records whose disclosures would invade constitutional privacy of some person.

SCHOOL DISTRICT MEETING HANDBOOK

When preparing for any school district meeting or hearing, a school board is well-advised to consult the School District Meeting Handbook for the legal details which set the procedure for all such meetings. There are many legal requirements to be met by the board in order to call and conduct any district meeting or hearing. These technicalities have all been gathered together and codified in one volume for ready reference. If a district does not already have a copy, one may be obtained by contacting the State Department of Education in Concord and requesting a copy of the School District Meeting Handbook.

The development of the Handbook began in 1969 as a project of the New Hampshire Association of Educational Secretaries. The idea was conceived by Edith Hammond of Hampton, Executive Secretary for Supervisory Union #21. In cooperation with the State Department of education and the Center for Educational Field Services, the research and writing of the Handbook was done by Aileen Katz of the CEFS staff and on-going supervision of the project was completed in the Fall of 1972. After the legal aspects of the manuscript were reviewed by Attorney David Bradley of Hanover and Attorney Arthur Nighswander of Laconia, it was turned over to the State Department of Education for printing. This important reference book should be in the possession of and used by every school board when planning meetings or hearings.

ANNUAL MEETING

The annual meeting is the one time of the year when a school board brings its educational program to the taxpayers to be funded. Extensive preparation and planning should begin three or four months in advance because school board success in having its program financed is greatly influenced by good planning and adequate preparation. There are, also, numerous legal aspects which must be correctly fulfilled by the board to assure that any action taken at

the annual meeting may withstand any legal challenge. The basic difference between the regular board meeting and the annual meeting is that in regular meetings the board members make the decisions while at the annual meeting it is the voters who make the decisions.

It is not easy to plan 18 months in advance but this is what school boards must do constantly as they prepare for their one big public exposure of the year—the annual meeting. It is here—somewhere between March first and April twentieth (RSA 197:1)—that the taxpayer is asked to raise and appropriate the money to support schools for the coming fiscal year, which begins July first; to elect district officers not elected at the town meeting; to approve of any changes in school service; and transact any other district business.

Because of the unpredictability of public reaction, most school boards approach the annual meeting with varying degrees of uncertainty. Having been on the firing line in the past will make any board gun-shy of the future. However, the school boards that are most vulnerable to attack are those who are not fully prepared to present themselves to public questioning.

HANDLING THE BUDGET

The budget is a prime target at annual meetings. Even though a board has been working on it for several months prior to the annual meeting, it is almost impossible for any one member to know all the intimate details. Yet the public often expects and demands such knowledge. In addition, the taxpayers do not want the answers from professional administrators. They want the facts from those school board members whom they have elected to office and not from the Superintendent or his staff. A budget has a much greater chance of success with the voters, if the board members handle the presentation and answer all possible questions. Again proper planning and preparation are the key to success.

An efficient and successful method of handling this problem requires three things:—

(1) The writing of a budget "script";
(2) Making good use of Robert's Rules of Order;
(3) An organized presentation of the material.

A budget "script"—written by the Superintendent and other members of the administrative staff—covers the budget proposal line item by line item. Each line item should be given liberal spacing on a page for ready reference and clearly identified by serial number and nature of expenses covered—whether the item has increased, decreased or is unchanged—and a brief explanation of the reason for any change in the item. These facts will provide a board member with the "cue" for answering questions.

In the background in support of the skeleton "script" should be the detailed work books from which the administrators obtained the final budget figure. Thus, if a taxpayer wishes to know how many typewriter ribbons are contained in Line Item 230—Teaching Supplies—a quick reference to the workbooks can provide the number, make and unit cost. Psychologically, this gives the board confidence knowing that it is backed up by all the facts.

THE MODERATOR

Conduct of the meeting by the moderator can directly effect success or failure of an article. Therefore, it is wise for a school board to sit down with the moderator just prior to the meeting and discuss the warrant with him. The board may request that a member be recognized first to make the original motion on any board articles, so the board's position may be put before the meeting in an orderly manner. A motion on the article should be written in advance and approved by school legal counsel. A member of the board may be designated to rise for recognition immediately after the reading of the article by the moderator. The motion is read—handed to the clerk—and seconded. Full discussion may then follow.

PRESENTING THE BUDGET

Organized action by the board is important. In handling the budget article, one member should have been previously asked to make the general presentation. This choice should be made at least one month prior to the meeting to permit time for planning. Then each specific line item is assigned to a member who prepares himself in detail to handle questions related to his particular assignments. The same division of responsibility is done with all special articles on the warrant.

By splitting up the work load, the board can be much more effective in presenting its budget and any special articles to the taxpayers. Cooperative school districts are required by law (RSA 195:12) to hold a public hearing upon a preliminary budget which gives board members a preview of the questions which might arise at the annual meeting. This allows them to strengthen any weak spots in advance.

THE VOTER

Another ingredient of success at meetings is voter turnout. The board has every legal right to encourage organized support of its educational program through parent-teacher organizations and any other local groups interested in civic welfare. Political scientists maintain a major drawback to public meetings is the ease with which an organized minority can sway them because of the generally small voter turn-out. Research in this area by a large banking firm indicates an anti-spending group usually represents a quarter of the electorate in every community. This anti-spending segment regularly appears to vote "No" on money matters, so where a two-thirds vote is needed on a bond issue, and the voter turn-out is light, the anti-spenders can easily defeat the article. Board members and administrators should make themselves available for appearances before PTA's, service and civic clubs—or any other organizations to explain the educational program and urge its support.

Certain legal requirements must be met for all annual meetings:—the framework of dates within which period the annual meeting must be held; time requirements for posting warrants; duties of election officials; preparation and use of check-lists in balloting; raising mon-

ey; voter qualifications; certification of the warrant prior to meeting; election of board members; and other district officials; filling of vacancies; and other laws which must be followed. The laws relating to meetings are all found in Chapter 197 of the most current edition of the Revised Statutes Annotated, the Municipal Budget Act, and New Hampshire Primary and Election Laws, Chapter 32.

SPECIAL MEETINGS

Special meetings—like the annual meeting—call for voter action. They may be called at the disgression of the board or by voter petition (RSA 197:2) but if money is to be raised at a special meeting certain legal qualifications must be met (RSA 197:3). The quorum requirement is almost prohibitive since it calls for the presence—and voting—of, at least, fifty percent of the voters on the checklist. The alternative to this is a petition to the superior court, which if granted, gives the same authority to a special meeting that exists in the annual district meeting.

However, unless a real emergency can be shown, New Hampshire courts are reluctant to grant permission for a special meeting. In districts operating under the Municipal Budget Act, the budget for a special meeting must be submitted to the municipal budget committee for study and recommendation. Other legal requirements must be met for warning, posting, records, check-list and similar duties which may be found in Chapter 197 of the Revised Statutes Annotated, the Municipal Budget Act, and the New Hampshire Primary and Election Laws. No special meeting should be attempted without legal advice in the preparation and conduct of the meeting.

It is essential that the board seek the advice and guidance of the Superintendent of Schools, the district Moderator, and the legal counsel for the district whenever the annual or a special meeting is being planned. All action taken at a meeting may be declared null and void if any legal requirement has not been carried out exactly according to the laws. Therefore, a legal check and double-check become a necessary part of planning for public meetings.

SAMPLE MEETING NOTICE AND AGENDA

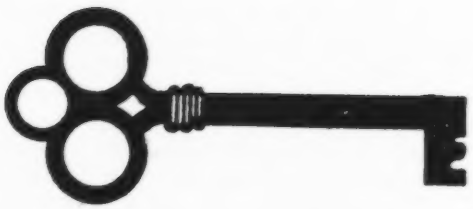
MEMO TO: Board Members, Principals, Supervisory Union Staff, Press
FROM: Superintendent of Schools
SUBJECT: Regular Board Meeting—Date, Place and Time
ENCLOSURES: Site Development Report from Architect
Science Room Equipment Needs Report from Principal

AGENDA

1. Roll Call—Review and approval of minutes of previous meeting
2. Review manifests and reconciliation sheets for signing
3. Principal's report current progress of new staff members
   (Requires executive session)
4. Projects

(a) Draft of letter to architect on new construction problems
(b) Review site development report for action
(c) Review report on science equipment needs for action

5. Federal aid—report from the Superintendent
   (a) Economic Opportunity Act proposals
   (b) Elementary-Secondary Education Act proposals
   (c) Legal action required for submission of proposals
6. Receive and act on transportation bids—(bidders to be present)
7. Set the date, time and location of next meeting



THE SUPERINTENDENT

The greatest single key to successful boardsmanship is Superintendent-Board relations. Of all the thousand and one threads woven into the educational fabric, none is more critical than a strong line of communication based upon mutual trust and mutual understanding between the board and the superintendent. When a two-way system breaks down, the entire educational program is endangered. The superintendent is the executive director for the district—professional adviser to the board—legally delegated representative of the board—and the one person solely responsible for the implementation of board policies. It is at this juncture in the system that most short-circuits occur.

THE WORKING RELATIONSHIP

The success of boardmanship is closely linked to the working relationship that exists between the board and the superintendent because it is at this critical juncture that the public and the professional unite. This is the point to which the community brings its educational needs and goals for translation into professional action. It is the superintendent who will then implement the board's policies.

To have a smooth working relationship, each has an obligation to the other. The board owes the superintendent:

1. Belief in his integrity
2. Confidence in his professional skills
3. Deference to his professional training and experience
4. Respect for the complexity of the role of superintendent

On the other side, the chief executive owes the board:

1. Managerial competence
2. Knowledge and ability to counsel and advise the board
3. A deep commitment to quality performance for himself and from all professional and non-professional staff
4. Hopefully, the humane characteristics that portray him as the inspirational leader of the entire system

The working relationship can best be described as symbiotic, with each feeding upon and gathering strength from the other. Here are two dissimilar "organisms"—board and superintendent—acting together in a union that is advantageous to each and vital to both. One can not exist without the other, so if such an interdependent and cooperative relationship does not exist, the board has an obligation to determine why it is failing.

EVALUATION

Just as the board expects the superintendent to provide staff evaluations on a periodic basis, it has the duty, itself, to periodically evaluate its chief advisor. A board should draw up a written policy that sets the guidelines and defines the evaluative instrument to be used to appraise the superintendent's performance. By putting the procedure in writing, the superintendent has a clear understanding of the process and can accept it as a regular routine. This "on-top-of-the-table" approach lessens the threat to the superintendent's security. There are a number of different instruments for evaluating administrative performance, so, before writing up the policy, it would be wise for a district to seek advice and counsel from the NHSBA or some independent consulting agency.

Any "laundry list" of areas of concern in evaluating a superintendent should include:

1. Are district goals being met?
2. Are community/school relationships good?
   a. Public confidence in programs
   b. Financial support from the district
   c. High public interest in both curricula and extra-curricula school activities
   d. Good media support
   e. Active public involvement in school programs
3. Is board kept current on federal and state legislative changes and new state board regulations?
4. Is professional and non-professional staff morale high?
5. Is student spirit and cooperation satisfactory?
6. Is the staff growth and development program succeeding?
7. Are board/superintendent relations harmonious?
   a. Meeting agendas prepared in advance
   b. Board properly informed on all matters
   c. Data, briefings and recommendations sound
   d. Exhibits leadership in board relations
   e. Can conflicts be readily resolved
   f. Are new ideas and techniques presented to the board
8. Is budget development and execution satisfactory and efficient?
9. Are board policies being kept up-dated and properly implemented?
10. Are his relationships with employees satisfactory?
11. Does he show leadership characteristics?
12. Is he actively involved in state and national organizations for educational administrators?
13. Are buildings well-maintained and supplied?
14. Do non-educational routines (busses, lunch and health programs) run smoothly?

Many other evaluative questions might be added to any "check-list" and other more sophisticated instruments might be used in determining how well **YOUR** superintendent functions in **YOUR** system. Never try to judge the universal characteristics of an administrator. Boards should limit their interest and concern to manner

in which the superintendent functions within the guidelines the board has established for **THEIR** chief school executive.

THE FOUNTAINHEAD—HAT #1

For educational information and advice, a board looks to its chief executive—the superintendent—as the principal and primary source. An endless supply of data flows into the office of the superintendent from both internal and external sources to which he must react. Those situations covered by existing board policies are appropriately managed—but out of this volume of input, certain matters will not be covered and must be passed along to the board for action. These topics are what make up the agenda at regular board meetings.

When the superintendent presents these items of business for discussion, reaction and action, the board should receive background briefing and recommendations from its chief advisor. The board must then exercise its decision making authority to accept, modify, or reject the recommendations. The board may, also, wish to postpone action until further information can be made available. In most instances, if mutual respect and confidence exists, the board will give strong consideration to the advice and counsel of the superintendent.

This does not mean that boards should "rubber-stamp" all recommendations. There is always latitude for disagreement and modification. However, if a board finds itself in frequent dissent with the superintendent's recommendations, there is either a lack of communication or some more deep-seated trouble. Such abrasive relations may be disruptive to the entire system so a board in these circumstances should take immediate steps to seek out the roots of the problem and rectify it quickly. There is a great deal at stake—and delay is unwise!

Even though the superintendent bears the major responsibility for a board's agenda, the board as a whole—or any individual member—may initiate business to be discussed and acted upon from time to time. Again, if this occurs with increasing frequency, the relations with the superintendent may be breaking down because the normal route for school business to travel is from the superintendent to the board.

In his role as consultant, the superintendent has a number of continuing responsibilities:

1. Supply accurate information and data
2. Offer alternative solutions wherever possible
3. Provide up-to-date assessments of current programs
4. Bring resource persons (students, teachers, department heads, project directors, business manager, principals, etc.) to board meetings for "educational" briefings on current curriculum developments
5. Alert board to potential problem areas for preventive action
6. Assist in orientation of new board members.

THE CHIEF ADMINISTRATOR—HAT #2

The most important hat worn by the superintendent is chief administrator. The legal responsibilities to the state and to the local

district have been spelled out earlier in this section. In broad, general terms, the superintendent is the executive director of the school system with a mandate to implement all board policies and to meet the educational goals of the district. The board makes the policies and sets the goals, then says to the superintendent, "These are the guidelines for action! These are the objectives! You design the strategy. You set the program in motion and keep it progressing towards our goals! We'll keep off your back, as long as things are going well—but we'll, also, hold you accountable for the total performance."

OUT OF BOUNDS

Except for ceremonial appearances and duties, school board members should carefully avoid direct involvement in the day-by-day operation of the schools. The board member who barges unannounced into the schools, handing out criticisms and directives, threatens the professional staff and undermines the morale of the entire system. Furthermore, it is not only improper—but illegal for an individual board member to act unilaterally for the board. Of course, board members should make announced visits to schools from time to time in order to observe programs in actions. But such visits should be made as interested and objective observers. Any positive evaluations might expediantly be shared on the spot with staff and students—but negative reactions should be reserved for discussion with the full board and the superintendent.

As chief executive, the superintendent is expected to provide feed-back and progress reports on programs to the board. If the validity of such reports is frequently questioned, then superintendent/board relations are breaking down—and danger signals should be raised. However, having set the goals, written the policies, and delegated the implementation of them to the chief executive, a board should have only two main concerns:

1. Are policy guidelines being followed?
2. Are goals being met?

There is no one way for a professional educator to succeed in achieving a goal. A board must allow flexibility in the educational process and limit its concern to an evaluation of the results, and not restrict methods for the staff.

This "hands-off" approach does not relieve the board from its responsibility to question practices within the schools that may seem to be too costly, too extreme, or that do not seem to be meeting district needs. The place to challenge any dubious techniques or programs is at the board meeting, where it can be placed upon the agenda in advance. This will allow time for the superintendent to make his own evaluations, accumulate data and information, and carry on a reasonable discussion of the issue. To initiate discussion of questionable matters without prior warning can create confusion and embarrassment. A board should not discuss any controversial issue without adequate warning and preparation.

STAFF SUPPORT

No board should expect a superintendent to assume full responsibility for the educational process of a district without providing him with adequate staff support. The staff support must be tailored to fit the size of the system and be geared to the expectancies of the board. It is not economical or efficient to pay top salary to the chief administrator and then expect him to count paper clips, order supplies, type letters, sort mail, monitor petty cash or a hundred and one other jobs which can be performed by a more subordinate employee, getting one-third the salary. Yet many New Hampshire superintendents must do many such routine chores simply because school boards have not provided sufficient staff support.

In determining the degree of support personnel needed in any district, a simple rule of thumb is: Do not expect a superintendent to carry out duties that are inconsistent with his professional role as educational leader or inconsistent with his administrative role as supervisor of all subordinate personnel.

As executive director, the superintendent should have sufficient time to manage all the affairs of the district; to render advice and counsel to the board; to enhance his professional growth by involvement in seminars, conferences and other agencies on the state and national level; to do short range and long term planning and evaluation; to be involved in community affairs; and to carry out the ceremonial duties of the role.

The superintendent's role has always been complex and demanding. The board which provides its executive officer with sufficient support to carry out his responsibilities saves tax dollars by hiring lesser paid employees to handle the simple routines and maximizes the efficiency of the superintendent at the same time. It becomes a double bonus for the district!

A school board must not lose sight of the fact that it is a committee elected by the people to represent the entire community. The superintendent, therefore, is not the private property of the board but serves as the educational spokesman for the whole district. In this role, the superintendent is in the most favorable position of anyone to shape the public attitude toward the schools. This important public relations role is discussed under a separate heading because it requires more detailed treatment.

SUPERINTENDENT/BOARD CONFLICT

Human relations being what they are, a certain degree of conflict can be expected between a superintendent and the board. The resolutions of any conflict begins with an examination of the causes. Most differences can be resolved through calm, objective and well-documented discussion. However, when no resolution appears possible and a potential rift is developing, there should be an immediate cooling-off period before relations are seriously damaged.

At this point, an agreement should be reached to submit the issue to outside consultants qualified to render an impartial and objective opinion. The State Department of Education, the school boards association, the administrators organization of any other public

or private individual or agency may act for both parties. This type of impasse resolution allows both sides to save face and can prevent superintendent/board relations from being destroyed over a single issue.

Conflict which arises when a board is not satisfied with the performance or competency of a superintendent is an entirely different and more serious matter. It should be pointed out, at once, that the board must have "in-hand", documented evidence of incompetency or unsatisfactory performance before bringing any such charges against a superintendent. A board not fully prepared to defend any of its allegations can find itself in court on the losing end of a civil suit. The immediate value of periodic evaluation becomes clear in such cases. The superintendent should not be surprised by any charges of incompetency or neglect of duty when he has already seen his periodic ratings by the board. (Every employee has a right under the law to be given any copy of any evaluative report and to discuss the contents with the employer before it is permanently entered into a personnel file.)

Under average circumstances, the superintendent is given an opportunity to resign without prejudice. Since the state of New Hampshire pays a portion of a superintendent's salary, he is technically an employee of the State Department of Education and any decision not to renew a contract or any action to dismiss a superintendent must be done in cooperation with the State Department of Education. If there are contract provisions to be adjusted, a board must delegate this job to its attorney. Terminating or adjusting contracts is no field for the amateur. Use a lawyer to save headaches and expense!

In the event that the superintendent chooses not to resign gracefully, he is entitled to substantive due process of the law as defined by the "Fair Dismissal" acts and he must be granted a hearing on request and is entitled to any rights of appeal under the law. Here again, documented evidence to support the board's case is absolutely essential in order to have any chance in the courts.

Dismissal of a superintendent while under contract is an extremely serious act. The severity of a dismissal places the superintendent's professional career in jeopardy and no such action should ever be taken by a board without prior advice and counsel of an attorney. Cases of this nature generally wind up in the courts and a board must be certain that it has not acted capriciously or willfully or in violation of an individual's civil rights.

CHOOSING A NEW SUPERINTENDENT

Hiring and contracting with a new superintendent is solely the responsibility of the State board—but recruiting and screening candidates may be varied at the local board's discretion. Nothing under the law prevents a board from doing all the recruiting and screening—but common sense makes such actions arbitrary and unwise. The superintendent is in fact a servant of all the people and a board should be able to understand the expediencey of involving the public

in the recruitment and nomination procedures.

There are several ways to have broad participation in selecting a new superintendent—but the most popular is through a representative ad hoc committee. The size and composition of such a group is a critical factor. So many special interest organizations want a piece of the action that a board should make an effort to include as many legitimate interests as possible in forming a committee. Students, teachers, principals, parents, taxpayers and other have a genuine interest in who will be the chief executive of the school system.

Before organizing and charging any ad hoc committee, the board has several duties to perform:

1. Guidelines must be drawn up defining the size, general composition and method of appointment. The size must be a workable number—ten or twelve. The composition should involve as many enterested groups as possible to assure maximum input. The appointments should be by the democratic process to avoid any later criticism of the composition and membership. For example, the teacher's union, or the student body or the parent's organization might be asked to elect representatives by balloting to serve on the committee.
2. The board must put into writing the duties and responsibilites of the committee. It should be made clear that the authority to actually hire and contract with a superintendent legally rests with the State board and may not be delegated to any committee. The ad hoc committee might be charged, for example, with submitting only one candidate to the board—but the board must clearly retain the right to reject any nominee and request another nomination from the Committee. On the other hand, the Committee may be charged with nominating two or more candidates from which the board makes a choice. Who does the recruiting? The screening? Will funds be available for expenses? What is the closing date for applications? For nominations? The board should have these and all other working details in order and on paper before putting the wheels of organizing a committee into motion.
3. The board must set the criteria for the candidates to be considered: the upper age limit; academic background; previous professional experience; quality of references; how well a candidates qualifications fit him for meeting the district's needs; and that the candidate be certified and approved by the State Department of Education.

Hopefully, a board will not have to undertake this process with any frequency. If the selection is thoughtfully carried out, a district should expect a loyal and satisfactory relationship to extend over a period of years. Changing the chief executive is disruptive to any system, which only emphasizes the need for advance planning before any board sets the mechanism in motion for selecting a new superintendent.

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

The school board's responsibility for efficient and effective administration does not stop with is chief executive—The Superintendent. The design of the entire organizational structure of the school system is an obligation for which the board must be accountable. Most boards are too preoccupied with the month by month problems to examine the management of the system. Yet the causes of many of these problems and crises are the direct result of an inefficient and ineffective administrative structure. Have you looked at yours lately?

A large majority of districts are still trying to manage the schools with the old "factory model" that evolved out of World War I. For its time and in its place, the vertical descent of authority from the top of a pyramid contributed greatly to raising the standards of living for millions of Americans and it still contains the basic elements of order. Where it fails is in its relationship to society. Latent social forces have surfaced—attitudes, goals, and social patterns have changed. The Classical "factory model" has become obsolete, and boards must evaluate their current management system in the light of these changes.

All the schools must have some form of organizational structure—guidelines for time and space—that will lead to fulfillment of educational goals. However, the old attitude of fitting the student to the system must be abandoned. In all too many schools, the child's first learning experiences are how to conform to the system. The school board has a responsibility to design an administrative structure that fits the system to the student—and not the student to the system.

Replacing the hierarchal pyramid, which only reinforces the cultural stratification of people, with a more humane structure is a difficult one for boards to make because it means a sharing of power. However, the future of public education hangs in a balance until such changes are made in the public schools.

The major changes taking place in educational management today are:

1. A restructuring of administrative roles to relieve educators of NON-EDUCATIONAL duties which can readily be carried out by some other person or a machine.
2. Decentralization of control to permit a sharing of power in some form of equitable mix.
3. An improved community/school partnership.
4. Management by objectives.
5. Broad involvement in goal setting and decision making.
6. Restructuring of school calendars and clocks.
7. Spreading the learning process out into the environment apart from the traditional classroom.
8. Modifying the grouping and scheduling of learners.
9. Differentiated staffing for maximum efficiencey.
10. Reversing the traditional image of the administrator from "enforcer" to manager.

RELATIONS TO STATE

The Superintendent of schools is selected for nomination by a Supervisory Union——but must, by law, be elected by the State Board of Education, which reserves the right to judge the nominees qualifications in deciding whether to accept or reject the candidate. Since a Supervisory Union is a state agency and a portion of the superintendent's salary is paid by the state, he is in fact a state employee. As such, the superintendent has certain duties to perform as an agent of the State Board of Education, which includes directive and supervisory control of all professional and non-professional employees within the Union; nomination of teachers; selection and purchase of text books and all other educational supplies; keeping records and issuing progress reports; removing from active duty teachers or other employees found illegal, immoral or incompetent; admitting students to schools and assigning them to classes or grades and certify their graduation; and enforcing all school board rules and regulations.

LOCAL DUTIES

What might the local board expect from its superintendent? In broad terms, the superintendent has a responsibility to the board for the total educational and operational program of the district within the framework of the state law and local board policies. The administrative power to act is delegated to the superintendent by the board with the permissive power to re-delegate this authority at his discretion. With this authority to reassign responsibility, a direct line of communication exists through its main switchboard—the superintendent—to the entire staff, professional and non-professional.

In more specific terms, the superintendent will be responsible for the quality of the learning process—or total curriculum—established by the board; the coordination of all school functions;recruitment and nomination of teachers and other school employees; any in-service training programs; preliminary budget preparation for final board action; care and maintenance of the physical plant and existing equipment; and monthly reconciliation of the board's budget. In addition, the superintendent is expected to bring innovative plans before the board for upgrading the quality and efficiency of all district business—educational or operational. A board may be expected to only initiate action which results from public demand but an action-oriented superintendent should keep a board appraised of educational changes which might be applicable to the district. Such action by the superintendent should be encouraged and supported by the board because growth and progress are moral responsibilities.

AUXILIARY PERSONNEL

AUXILIARY STAFFING

Business managers, executive secretaries and various other staff members with the necessary skills to carry on the business of a Supervisory Union are being employed in increasing numbers to free the Superintendent of many tasks which may only be laterally related to his role as chief educator. Intelligent use of auxiliary personnel results:

1. In more efficient and effective operation of the Union
2. Lower cost because lower level tasks are being executed by lower paid employees.

The same principles of efficiency and cost saving may be extended to the administration and staff of individual school through the use of auxiliary personnel. Since no two school environments are exactly alike, the roles which may be filled by non-certificated personnel must be tailored to each set of circumstances and needs—but the same guidelines may be applied in every situation. What duties may be skillfully executed by part-time or full-time persons other than professional, licensed educators? This calls for a review of all professional roles from principal to classroom teacher and determinations made of what duties can be carried out by auxiliary personnel that would allow educators to function more effectively in their professional role.

The use of auxiliary personnel has been well established, and functions with a great deal of sophistication, in many professional fields. For some reason, education has been dragging its heels in this area. The reasons are unimportant—because school systems are now beginning to catch up with other professions like medicine and dentistry, which have been using nurses, technicians, technologists and aides for many years. It has been mostly a matter of professional attitude. Doctors and dentists do not feel threatened by the use of auxiliary personnel but view their use as maximizing their own professional skills.

With the rising professionalism among educators, administrators and teachers are more willing to turn routine chores over to assis-

tants or interns or aides in order to more effectively deal with the educational responsibilities for which they alone have the skills to execute.

In developing new staffing patterns in a district through the use of subsidiary help, the board's position should be one of receptive support of the idea and not the arbitrary imposition of assistance upon the professional educators whether it is wanted or not. Each educator's role has its own individualized specifications and requests for auxiliary staff should come directly from those professionals who will utilize that assistance. For example, a lecturer in physics might not need any help—but a kindergarten teacher might welcome a couple of extra pairs of hands. A principal in a small school may need only a part-time secretary, whereas a principal in a large city school might need several members of the staff. Allow the amount of man-power to fit the demand!

The board's role is to write a flexible policy for differentiated staffing which permits the use of persons other than administrators and teachers in the program, when such use will improve the quality of the program and/or increase the efficiency of the operations. This might include secretaries, aides, volunteers, resource persons or any others that might be successfully utilized. An administrative secretary is a good example of school efficiency.

THE SECRETARIAL STAFF

Many, many hours of administrative time may be freed by the employment—and effective use—of a secretarial staff. Even the smallest schools with a teaching-principal may benefit. With help to handle routine matters, answer most correspondence, organize business affairs, cover the telephone, and insulate the principal from salesmen, parents and other callers whose business can be properly settled by a secretary any principal has more time for professional responsibilities. The larger the school complex, the greater the need for secretarial assistance beginning with the principal and front office and spreading to the guidance department, the library, the department heads, coordinators and into all administrative areas where a secretary may free the professional educator from routine jobs.

In drawing up policies for the secretarial staff, a school board should clearly define the role which such employees should play in the system. A personal secretary should not be viewed as a typist, stenographer or receptionist but as an extension of the administrator whom she serves—a personal assistant who may be trusted with confidential school business and given limited decision making authority in simple procedures.

Schools with several members of the secretarial staff, should designate an executive secretary who will have supervisory control of the front office and limited supervision of personal secretaries. In hiring practices, clerks, typists and receptionists may be interviewed by the executive secretary and successful candidates referred to the principal for final selection. Candidates for jobs as personal secretaries should be interviewed by the administrators whom they

are to serve and the acceptable candidates again referred to the school principal for a final decision.

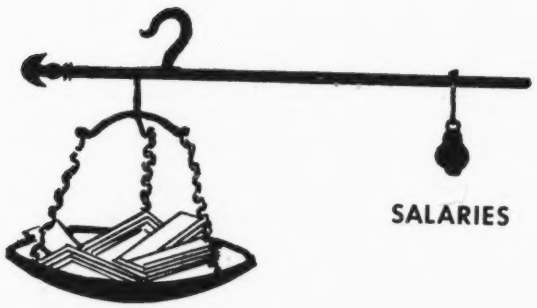
A manual—even if it is only a couple of mimeographed sheets—describing the policy and philosophy of the board toward secretarial help—rules and regulations of employment—grievance procedures—and job definition should be prepared and distributed to all members of the secretarial staff.

ON JOB TRAINING

In high schools offering commercial education, upper class girls may receive "on-the-job" training in the front office as part of the curriculum. Under the supervision of the executive secretary, students may, by actual practice, learn such office routines as switch board operation, use of business and duplicating machines, letter writing, reception of callers or filing and mailing techniques. This form of distributive education has other advantages in addition to the learning process. It represents a service to the local business community in the form of a quasi-employment office. Since secretarial talents are evaluated in actual working situations, students may be matched to employer demands and in turn the local business men may turn with confidence to the school to fill secretarial jobs.

PERSONAL QUALITIES

What characteristics should a school board expect to find in a competent administrative secretary in addition to basic secretarial skills? Since all school employees contribute to the educational environment and reflect the quality of the program, it would be essential that all members of the secretarial staff be trustworthy; able to respect confidential information; loyal to the total effort; responsible and efficient in handling and understanding school business; make a neat appearance; have a personal self-improvement program for professional growth; show courtesy and respect for students, as well as, employers; and be resourceful and imaginative in their work.



TEACHER NEGOTIATIONS

Teacher negotiations are a fact of life—or shortly will be—for every school board. Negotiations by their very nature are adversary proceedings in which two parties—teacher unions and school boards—oppose each other determinedly, continuously, and relentlessly at arms length until a mutually acceptable agreement has been reached. All too often, the victory is a Pyrrhic one for either side because the price in bitterness, frustration and resentment can be too costly. As Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, said when he defeated the Romans but lost most of his army, "One more such victory and we are lost!"

Never underestimate the price of negotiations both in terms of tax dollars and in shared power. The stakes are exceedingly high and boards should not expect the unions to enter such proceedings unprepared. The heaviest artillery is going to be trained on school boards and the undergunned are going to be shot down like trusting ducks scaling into the decoys. One misplaced "comma" and the board can give away an important management prerogative to the unions.

Under current circumstances, the best advice that can be given any school board about to enter into union negotiations is: Don't try it on your own! Hire a professional negotiator. The money spent for skilled support will be insignificant compared with what a school board—as the legal representative of the community—stands to lose, not only in dollars but in the quality and flexibility of the learning process. Modern collective teacher agreements are too complex for untrained board members to fully understand. There is no good substitute for professional assistance. Bargaining has become sophisticated and intricate gamesmanship which can best be handled by an experienced and able negotiator who has been trained to conduct discussions and arrange settlements with teacher unions.

There are just too many "booby-traps" concealed in the wording of teacher bargaining agreements for the uninitiated board member. Attempts to safely dodge through the "mine-field" can end in disaster. The local district teacher's union is probably no better qualified to carry on the negotiating process than the school board but it has the advantage of state and national union support. Even the smallest teacher organization can obtain a prepackaged nego-

tiating kit which, among other things, will contain a standard teacher bargaining agreement that can run to over 100 pages in length—as difficult to read as the fine print of most contracts. Asking a local board to go through such a document and pick up all the objectionable and non-negotiable phrasing is unrealistic. It is a job for the expert.

A board entering into the negotiations process for the first time is well-advised to begin easily by limiting the discussions to as few items as possible. Over a period of time a more sophisticated agreement can be developed. If at all possible, the negotiations should be limited in scope to salaries, fringe benefits, grievance procedures and negotiating ground rules. These four subjects should be mutually acceptable to both parties and can be considered bargainable without dispute.

THE DONT'S

As the negotiating field widens—and a board must expect such an eventuality—the door is open for such phrases as: "terms of employment"; "working conditions"; or some similar wording. The board may have to agree to bargain under one of these word groups —and this is where the going gets sticky because there is often a fine line between what is "policy" (the legal rights of the board) and what can clearly be defined as "working conditions". However, by agreeing to bargain on "working conditions", the board retains its right to DISAGREE on subjects which it considers non-negotiable. Any time the board's policy making authority is threatened by unreasonable demands that do not fit a pragmatic definition of "working conditions", it has the right under good faith bargaining to refuse to negotiate such a demand. Such a stand can produce some argument at the bargaining table—but this is the sort of effect a board must come to expect in an adversary proceeding.

The dangers fraught in bargaining over "working conditions" will be found in ambiguous and not easily defined words or phrases—or in attempts to obscure the real intent of a clause with the "back-door" technique of burying a non-negotiable demand in a seemingly innocent paragraph or sentence. So be extremely wary of any words or groups of words that might rob a board of its policy making power.

Take, for example, such imprecise or indefinite phrases as, "for just cause"; "matters of mutual concern"; or "and any other subjects". They are dynamite—real time-bombs—that can explode an entire school system. If such gray language is admitted into the negotiations, the board certainly can expect a great deal of time consuming arguments over clarification of definitions that are unattainable. Both sides will be frustrated and unhappy in these situations—so avoid such confrontations by deleting such phrases from the agreement.

Another danger for school boards is agreeing to what is generally known as "either/or" fact finding, which calls upon a neutral intervener who will make decisions for the district which may not be in the best interest of the community or the teachers—but is bind-

ing upon both parties. "Either/or" fact finding means that the board prepares its final position on the unresolved issues as one package and the union prepares a package containing its final positions. Both packages are presented to a fact finder, who must choose one package or the other in its entirety. There is no place for compromise. It is all or nothing.

This technique represents a real threat to both sides and should not be accepted as one of the terms of a bargaining agreement. It is far better for both parties to work out of what seems to be a hopeless situation by their own powers of logic and persuasion than to have decisions made for them by a fact-finder. Meditation—which brings a skilled outsider into the impasse who can hopefully reconcile both sides into a compromise position—has far more merit in bargaining than fact-finding.

DANGER SPOTS

The entire field of teacher negotiations is changing so rapidly and spreading so fast that no digest of the subject can be considered complete or can remain up-to-date for any extended period of time. However, recent past experience nationally in negotiations have highlighted a number of danger spots for school boards which can be summarized in short statements. These statements will be incomplete in detail but sufficiently important to convince a school board in a dramatic manner that professional help is money well-spent.

1. Bargain only with teachers. All administrative or supervisory personnel who have the responsibility for the implementation of policy should be excluded from participation at any level or must be on the side of the management. Non-professional personnel (custodians, bus drivers, office workers, etc.); and, where appropriate, supporting personnel (nurses, guidance counselors, librarians, department heads, etc.) should not be included in the bargaining agreement. Only the certified teachers should be recognized for purposes of negotiations.

2. Be crystal clear about the definition of the word "negotiations" and agree well in advance of actual bargaining on the subject matter which the board considers "negotiable". This avoids later arugment over what is meant by "negotiations". With limitations and guidelines set in advance, a board can be sure that the unions will want to enroach as deeply as possible into the policy making process—but previously agreed to subject matter open to negotiation will halt any attempts of this nature.

Teacher unions are pushing hard to control such things as class size or set staffing ratios (which is merely another means of controlling the number of employees on a staff according to student population). These are dangerous precedents for a board to accept since no one is really able to justify these proportions in terms of specific numbers compared to teacher performance—or even that the classrooms themselves will be the learning environment of the future or how large a group of learners one certified teacher may be able to orchestrate by using aides, resource persons and technology.

However, if a school board, for example, is foolish enough to agree to limit classes to 30 students, the board has opened Pandora's box because the district is stuck with this figure (or a smaller one) forever because putting things into a union agreement is simple—but getting them out on a later negotiating session is nearly impossible. School Boards could find themselves the victim of "feather-bedding" and be in the same plight as the railroads who were coerced by the unions into hiring unnecessary employees—as **firemen** on diesel engines—because once it was put into the union agreement, railroad management was never able to get it out again.

3. Avoid any invasion of policy making—text book selection, evaluative instruments, curriculum methods, budget matters, tax programs, construction, school calendar, daily scheduled and similar strictly policy subjects. Discussion in these areas and the recognition of teacher input are a must in good boardmanship because teachers are often in the best position and most highly qualified to make recommendations to the board, and their advice should be sought and respected. However, there is a great deal of difference receiving input on policy and bargaining away a board's rights to make the final decision in policy matters. Doing so abdicates a boards responsibility to the community that delegated it to represent them in the educational process. Protect the legitimate board rights!

4. Avoid objectionable language or vague and ambiguous words by asking a simple question about a sentence or phrase or a word. Is the board in a position to guarantee this sentence or phrase or word under every possible definition? If such a guarantee is not possible, have such statements deleted from the agreement or specifically defined so that you have no doubts about the meaning. It is this sort of ambiguous wording that later generates grievances on issues that are difficult or impossible to solve. Open-ended statements expose the board to commitments that it can not later fulfill. Reference has already been made to phrases as: "for just cause"; "matters of mutual concern"; "other things" and their ilk. These undefinable statements are red flags in every agreement—take care to delete them!

5. Do not admit any phrases into an agreement concerning discrimination on the basis of race, creed, color, sex, or national origin. Federal and state laws already forbid discrimination of every sort and it does not belong in a union agreement. Union members can always seek recourse in the courts on matters of discrimination. Putting any such demands in an agreement only raises the possibility of grievances by teachers for alleged acts of discrimination and these grievances belong in the courts—and not in school board meetings.

6. Do not tie the operation of the schools to the finalizing and signing of a union agreement. Under the law, boards must see that the schools are in operation regardless of the status of union negotiations. Under this sort of agreement, the unions could close down the school by merely refusing to sign the agreement.

7. Avoid agreements that in any way divert district funds to support the activities of the teacher organization, including released

time, telephone, postage or any other costs of union operations. Tax dollars are raised to educate students and not subsidize unions.

8. Do not agree to any special or preferred status for teachers at board meetings. Board meetings are public by law and all parties—students, parents, taxpayers, administrators, teachers, and any others with an interest in the schools—have equal access and privilege at board meetings.

9. Do not agree to a fixed schedule of meetings between representatives of the school board and the union. Monthly meetings, for example, can be counter-productive and time consuming. Most of the matters brought up at such meetings rightfully belong at the bargaining table and it further threatens the role of the building principal when teachers attempt to by-pass the administration by direct access to the board. A Teacher—Board Relations Committee may be established as a method of receiving staff input to the board but this type of committee should be convened when a productive agenda is available.

10. Do not agree to any proposals that erode or impose restrictions upon the board's and administration's right to hire whatever educational and non-educational staff are best qualified to fill any opening. This hiring process is mandated to the board under State Board regulations and the prerogative may not be bargained away.

11. Avoid restrictive language in the area of teacher assignments. The administration must be allowed flexibility with teaching assignments in order to adjust to changing or unusual conditions which may arise between the time a contract is signed in the spring and the time when school opens in the fall. It is, however, implicit that no teacher will be given an assignment for which the teacher is not fully qualified.

12. Retain the right to put the most highly qualified person in a teaching role. Do not commit the board to an agreement that uses seniority as the determining factor in hiring practices or for that matter any similar restrictive criteria.

13. Do not agree to limit the system to current educational practices or policies. This would prevent the board, not now using them, from attempting performance contracting, voucher plans, alternative schools, community-school partnerships, year-around school or other educational options that show promising potential. Retain your freedom of choice!

14. Avoid any formal agreements in the area of student discipline, except to make it clear that all teachers have a responsibility to help maintain discipline wherever and whenever they may be on school property. Rules and regulations for discipline may be mutually developed with teacher input but the subject has no legitimate place on the bargaining table.

15. Exercise great caution in drawing up a grievance procedure or a board may find itself dealing with a myriad of petty issues. Avoid an open-ended definition of the term "grievance". A precise and specific definition of a "grievance" should limit the union claims only to violation of the contract—and nothing more than that. This issue accents the need for tight, clearly definable contracts.

16. Do not agree to any clause which attempts to guarantee teachers "academic freedom". Respecting academic freedom is one thing—defining it is another! The definition of the term calls for subjective judgments over which a "band of angels" would fail to agree. How can a union expect the mere mortals on a school board to be precise in defining academic freedom? However, an appropriate clause may be accepted that deals with controversial or irrelevant and indiscreet teaching material.

17. Do not agree to an "agency shop" because under such a union agreement, a teacher who refuses to pay union dues whether that teacher is or is not a member of the local organization, must be automatically discharged from the staff. Such unilateral and unfair action needs no further elaboration. The faults and dangers are apparent.

18. Don't stop with these "don'ts". Each individual agreement is a maze of "fine print" to be discovered and deleted.

These few "Don'ts" are no attempt to touch all bases in teacher negotiations. They merely scratch the surfaces. They intend to emphasize that during negotiations each WORD of the agreement under consideration must be thoroughly analyzed, clearly defined and its implications carefully projected and evaluated. If for no other reason, this discussion should convince a school board that negotiating can be a hard, difficult and tricky game played to the hilt and embellished with booby traps to victimize the unsuspecting. Hire help, if you want to save your sanity and your schools. The New Hampshire School Board Association stands ready to give any member district aid in obtaining a skilled, experienced negotiator. Call upon the Association at any time for assistance in the bargaining process.

SALARY GUIDES

Almost every teacher prefers a district to have a salary guide of some form to fix their present salary and guarantee a predictable future income. Two basic——but similar—salary guides are in popular use by New Hampshire school boards that meet this need at the present time:— fixed and indexed.

A fixed salary guide is one that starts with a board decision on the minimum starting salary for a beginning teacher with zero years of experience, followed by a second decision as to the maximum salary that a teacher might expect to receive. The next determination is the number of years of service it will require for a teacher to move from the bottom of the scale to the top. In its simplest form, the number of years is then divided into the difference between the minimum and the maximum to find the annual increment. Then to set a teacher's salary, the annual increase is multiplied by the number of years of experience and added to the base pay.

For example, with a base salary of $6000 and a top of $10,000 reached after 10 years of experience, the difference would be $10,000 − $6000 = $4000 ÷ 10 = $400 annual increment. Thus, a teacher with 5 years of experience would be paid 5 x $400 = $2000 + $6000 (base salary) = $8000.

Most boards using this fixed dollar salary guide have found it more effective to grant an uneven annual raise weighting the guide more heavily in the years when staff changes are apt to occur. Averages show that a beginning teacher will remain in a system for three years so that annual increments will be lowest during this period. Then since contracts are given out during the spring of the third year, the teacher is induced to remain with the district by a sharp increase in salary for the fourth and fifth years. Figures show that after a teacher has been with a system for five years who resigns, does so for various reasons other than salary. A guide should, also, include a fixed reimbursement for teachers who hold masters degrees or doctorates.

An indexed salary guide is somewhat more simple to establish and easier to adjust while at the same time being more fair to the teacher. In its most basic form, an indexed guide starts again with the establishment of base salary for a beginning teacher but then progresses upward on a fixed percentage of the previous year's salary for a limited number of years.

For example, if the board set a $6000 minimum salary and five per cent per annum as the increase, the salary of the second year teacher would be 1.05 x $6000 = $6300 or an increase of $300 but carried into the third year, it would be 1.05 x $6300 = $6615, or an increase of $315. The indexed system works exactly like a bank interest compounded annually. Again the fourth and fifth years are usually given a larger percentage increase to retain teachers who have satisfactorily survived the three year probationary period. Also, the extra compensation for advanced degrees can be based upon a percentage of a teacher's salary.

The fairness of such a guide is clearly evident, if one examines the diminishing returns for increasing experience in a fixed dollar salary guide. A beginning teacher at $6000 receiving a $400 increment in the second year enjoys a six and one-half percent jump in salary, while a teacher at a maximum of $10,000 getting the same $400 receives only a four percent raise, or 40 percent less than the beginner. This creates friction on the staff among the experienced teachers.

FLEXIBILITY

Whatever form of salary schedule—and the word "schedule" should really be discarded in favor of the word "guide", since the first connotes rigidity whereas the second implies flexibility—a board might elect to follow, this is only the start of a school board's approach to the problem. Far more important than the dollars and cents relationship, which boards well-know changes more rapidly than a chameleon on a Persian carpet, is:—

(1) the careful writing and adoption of policies which clearly define the relationships between the school board and the teaching staff;

(2) the annual publication of a teacher's handbook which puts down in black and white the teacher's duties and responsibilities; and

(3) the preparation of a student's handbook which makes clear to the teachers, as well as the pupils, the board policies regarding scholars.

A set of personnel policies must be tailored to fit the particular situations which exist within the district but certain fundamental points must be defined which describe terms of employment and working conditions that are fair and acceptable. Teachers today expect and deserve professional consideration in personnel policies.

There are certain elemental policies that are central to the problem:— conditions of sick and emergency leave; sabbatical leave; certified and non-degree staff provisos; release from contract; reimbursement of costs of advance education; exceptions in initial placement of certain classes of teachers on the salary guide; exemption of administrative and non-teaching personnel from the salary guide; restrictions on individual salary adjustments; separate treatment of extra-curricula compensation; and any other policies which may relate to fringe benefits. It is the duty of the Superintendent to assist the board in the preparation of a set of policies that covers its particular situation. There is, also, a need for annual re-evaluation and revisions that will keep it current with any changes in the system.

TEACHER HANDBOOK

The teacher's handbook may be anything from a mimeographed sheet of paper to a thick, elaborate volume. It should be whatever is necessary to bring together teacher-related policies and the administrative procedures of the school in printed form so that all staff members are equally and tangibly informed of their duties and responsibilities. A teacher's handbook must be revised each year so its format should be kept simple and inexpensive. Preparation of the handbook should be the work of the administrative staff but authorization for the work and approval of the contents is a board duty.

An excellent example of a teacher's handbook is the one used at Winnacunnet High School and sample copies may be obtained by writing the Principal, Winnacunnet High School, Hampton, N. H. The contents spell out in detail the teacher's personal responsibilities, pupil evaluation, classroom duties, home room responsibilities and miscellaneous grouping which covers such subjects as fire drill, study hall, visitors and custodial services. Also, listed are the major activites for the year and the school assemblies with the dates and teacher assignments.

An equally fine student handbook is, also, prepared by the same school which enumerates the rules and regulations within which the student body must function. Each teacher is given a copy of the student handbook as a supplement to the teacher's handbook, since information of importance to teacher-student re-

lationships is available which has not been duplicated in the teacher handbook.

When school boards put things into writing, they cultivate the best possible educational climate for a district. It eliminates guesswork, misunderstanding and provides the smoothest possible highway for communications to travel back and forth among school boards, administrators and staff. A free flow of information and ideas is essential in any quality program.

NEGOTIATIONS AND THE LAW

There are certain legal aspects of teacher negotiations which affect the conduct of boards. Negotiation means much more legally than a school board reacting to a request for adjustments in teachers' salaries and working conditions by use of unilateral discretion. The National Labor Relations Act defines negotiations as the duty of both employer and employees to "meet at reasonable times and confer in good faith with respect to wages hours and other terms and conditions of employment." It, also, states that there is no implied compulsion on either party to agree or make concessions. However, if a board enters negotiations with a fixed position—a take it or leave it attitude—courts may rule that such action was inconsistent with "good faith" bargaining. There must be some flexibility on both sides for give and take, but does not mean capitulation to demand but only the use of fair judgment in assessing the reasonableness of any proposal.

The United States Supreme Court has defined three classifications of labor relations proposals:—

(1) Illegal and not bargainable;

(2) Voluntary and subject to agreement by both sides as proper areas for bargaining;

(3) Mandatory. So that the categories specifically defined in a school board's policy such as salaries, fringe benefits and other conditions of employment must be open to negotiations. Any matters fixed by state law such as pensions, retirement, tenure and non-delegable board powers are "off-limits" in negotiations. There can be no collision with existing statutes and State Board of Education regulations.

The courts further hold that it is a violation of good faith, if either side refuses to discuss, or provide factual information for discussion, of any mandatory subject. Also, neither side can insist upon including a voluntary subject in the discussions that has not been approved by both sides in preliminary agreement to negotiate.

School boards, also, ought to know that the courts uphold their authority to make all final decisions. Just because a board has been forced to negotiate, it does not mean it has delegated a non-delegable power. There is no surrender of authority, only an additional bit of work for the board. Hopefully, the extra burden of negotiations will improve the quality of the program and ultimately benefit the

students. The end product of negotiation is a written agreement which becomes part of a teachers contract and should remain in effect for no longer than one year.

All courts and authorities agree that teachers have no right to strike or use other collective obstructions. Such acts are a form of anarchy since they are an intent to prevent or obstruct the operation of government. Yet strikes and sanctions are taking place constantly throughout the United States. Out of these violations new laws and lessons will emerge which will preserve as far as possible an uninterrupted educational process. Keeping abreast of these changes will place a considerable—but vulnerable—responsibility on New Hampshire school boards.

STUDENT DISCIPLINE, MARRIAGE AND PREGNANCY

Student discipline is a problem in which school boards are seldom directly involved, except to expel or exclude a student from school or to hear appeals from students or parents seeking relief or redress from a disciplinary action that may not be resolved at a lower administrative level. This statement is only true if a school board has a written policy setting the rules and regulations of student conduct and delegates this authority to the school staff for enforcement.

The courts have consistently held that a student has the responsibility to obey the laws, the rules and the regulations of the school. In addition, a student has the duty to submit to the orders of teachers and other school authorities. Legally, a teacher stands **in loco parentis**—or in place of the parents—to the student and may use whatever reasonable powers and controls are necessary to maintain order in the classroom, within the building or on the school grounds.

As the governing body, the school board has the legal right to adopt rules for the discipline and management of the schools. The courts will uphold such a written policy and not substitute its judgment for that of the school board provided the policy is not unreasonable nor in violation of the constitutional civil rights act of the law. It is most important for any school board to have its policy concerning student conduct checked by counsel to make certain that all provisions are reasonable, legal, allows a pupil full rights granted by law, do not alienate a pupil from parental control, and are relevant to the educational process.

THE CIVIL RIGHTS ACT

Boards have been under constant challenge in recent years over policies, rules, regulations or decisions that might violate an individual's civil rights guaranteed by the 1st, 5th and 14th Ammendments of the United States Constitution and the Bill of Rights. The issues generally involve freedom of expression; personal appearance regarding hair styles and grooming; school codes of behavior; search and seizure of property stored in student or staff lockers; extra-curricula activities; pregnancy; marriage; discipline codes; student publi-

cations; drug abuse; petitions and other forms of protest; and collaborative decision making that may involve students, teachers and the community.

Civil rights decisions to resolve these issues are pouring out of the courts with the regularity of an assembly line. This accumulating body of opinion has done more to alter the course of American education than any other social change in the past decade. It has had a powerful impact on school board action, forcing review of all policies, rules and regulations that may even remotely be related to civil rights. The writing of a new policy or new rules is, also, carefully framed to conform to the Bill of Rights and the United States Constitution. The price that a school board may pay for ignoring civil rights is to wind up in these same courts as defendants in a civil suit brought by an aggrieved student or district employee.

No board should be expected to keep up with every legal test of civil rights—but certain landmark decisions have clearly established some general guidelines that can help boards steer an even course through this legal maze. The—freewheeling—authoritarian action by boards is gone forever. Those forms of control over students and staff, which for years have been accepted as normal and proper, are suddenly being challenged as contrary to constitutional law.

The most important concept for guiding boards is an understanding of "procedural due process" and its consistent application when carrying out board duties. What is "procedural due process" and what are the elements which need to be contained in board policies and rules in order to assure its exercise?

"Due process" is a structured procedure that protects and preserves the constitutional rights of all persons of all ages from infringement by governmental agents; such as school boards or their designated agents: superintendents, principals, teachers et al.

The structural elements of "due process" must clearly define the step by step procedures to be used in reaching a decision that concerns any individual's rights and privileges. These procedural steps should:

1. Define the method for opening up the subject for discussion.
2. Devise a format that allows all persons involved to present their side of the issue fully.
3. Establish a means of reaching a decision.
4. Make known and preserve the right of appeal.

The most critical word which a board must rely upon in "procedural due process" is FAIR. It is a time honored tradition of American Democracy that its people will be treated fairly during a hearing or a trial and that any subsequent or resulting judgment will be fair. By taking the more formal and difficult route of "procedural due process", fairness must be a characteristic of each phase of the action.

In determining what is FAIR, boards must take great care that personal preference is not substituted for "fair". If the personal preference is to "throw the rascal out", this attitude must be restrained. For example, if the majority of a board were opposed to long hair, beards or the current styles of grooming, it would be convenient

to force this "personal preference" upon students and staff. Not so, says the courts! By forcing its personal preference upon others, the board violates any individual's right for freedom of expression. There is room for personal preference in all decision making and it is an essential part of all discretionary action—only be sure it does not violate the civil rights laws.

FAIRNESS

In all disputes, the board must grant the accused three things in order to meet the requirements of fairness:

1. The individual must be fully informed of all the charges that may threaten her or his liberty, reputation or property.
2. The individual must be granted the chance for a hearing at which every opportunity is made available to negate the evidence or the testimony of a witness or witnesses against him or her.
3. The individual must have the unrestricted opportunity to challenge the policy or rule being applied in her or his case as being unreasonable, arbitrary, malicious, capricious, discriminatory, vague, or an infringement upon constitutional guarantees.

Unless these requirements are met, there are grounds for an appeal from a board's decision to the courts and if these requirements have been violated, the chance of the court overturning a board's decision are almost certain. Boards must play by the rules of the game or face the consequences!

Boards must not lose sight of the rights of children. The United States Supreme Court has said, in the 1967 landmark Gault decision, that under the provisions of the 14th Amendment and the Bill of Rights a child of ANY age is entitled to equal protection of the law/ This means that all the rights and constitutional guarantees granted to adults are even-handedly granted to children.

To avoid conflict with the law, school board policies and rules may not infringe upon the freedom and rights of any individual. In reviewing old policies and rules—or in writing new ones—a board may wish to follow a few simple criteria to escape this conflict with the law. Policies and rules which may limit or restrain individual rights are normally legal when it can be clearly demonstrated that any infraction of the policy or rule will have the following effect upon the system:

1. Will interfere with the orderly conduct of classes and disrupts the function of the school.
2. Will present a clear and present danger to the health and safety of the individual or to any others in or around the school buildings.
3. Will cause excessive maintenance or damage to the school buildings, contents or grounds.
4. Will infringe upon the rights of other students or individuals.
5. Will result in criminal acts.

6. Will materially and substantially interrupt the maintenance appropriate discipline and work in the school or its environs.

Boards are advised to have all policies and rules which might in any way affect the constitutional rights of individuals checked by legal counsel—or by a professional policy consultant or firm—prior to final enactment. Once policies are established, they should serve as constant guides for board action. There are a number of court decisions in the past years that have gone against school boards who had the proper policies and regulations but failed to follow the substance of their own policies and regulations when they were applied. "Substantive due process" is another process to which all persons are entitled. There is little defense for a board who has sound and legal policies but fails to follow the substance contained in them to the letter.

DELEGATED AUTHORITY

Although, the school board has the right to adopt appropriate policy for student discipline, the delegated discretionary authority to administrators and teachers is implied by the courts, giving them the right to adopt reasonable rules of conduct which may apply to any individual classroom, building or grounds. For example, a school principal may set a speed limit on vehicles entering and leaving the school grounds; a teacher may set rules governing the seating arrangement of his classroom; or travel slips may be required of students in hallways between regular class breaks.

Generally, a school board may only delegate administrative and ministerial duties in which discretionary action is limited, but the area of student discipline becomes an exception. Broad powers, requiring judgmental latitude, may be granted the professional staff in establishing and enforcing reasonable rules of student conduct. This delegation of discretionary power by the board becomes necessary because no written policy may be expected to provide for every emergency nor meet every requirement. A school employee, of course, has no power to set a rule which the board, itself, can not legally impose. For example, a teacher may not force a student to serve on a school safety patrol since this represents a violation of a pupil's rights.

OFF-GROUNDS AUTHORITY

It is usually assumed that when a student leaves the school premises that school authority ceases. This is not wholly true. Students off the school premises on any school sponsored activity must have responsible supervision and the pupils must continue to obey the laws and regulations of the school. In addition, outside conduct of pupils which affects the welfare, management, discipline and training of the school is subject to school authority, if such conduct directly affects the school. The offending pupil may be punished, suspended or expelled by school authorities. Such misconduct may include smoking, drinking, disrepect for the school, immorality or other forms of improper behavior.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Corporal punishment is a problem which school boards must tangle with on occasion. In the absence of any state or local law prohibiting corporal punishment, a teacher—as a replacement parent—may inflict reasonable corporal punishment on a student for misconduct provided such punishment is not cruel, nor excessive, and the teacher or principal administering the punishment does not act maliciously or wantonly. What is cruel or excessive does not lend itself to precise definition but the courts agree that when a teacher inflicts temporary pain or injury, the limits of authority have not been exceeded. On the other hand, a teacher may not inflict permanent injury.

If criminal or civil action is brought against a teacher inflicting corporal punishment, the courts place the burden of proof upon the plaintiff to show that the child was unlawfully beaten and permanently injured because the courts grant the teacher the right to use moderate force to obtain a student's obedience. If a school board wishes to prohibit corporal punishment within its district, it may include such an exclusion in its policy on student discipline. In the absence of such a restriction, a teacher has the backing of the courts to administer reasonable corporal punishment provided it is not done in anger or with malice.

STUDENTS MUST COMPLY

Even though attendance at school is compulsory under state law, it is still a public privilege conditioned by the student's compliance with school constitutionally permissible rules and regulations. Violation of this disciplinary code can result in suspension or expulsion of the student either conditionally or permanently. The authority to dismiss a student from school is delegated by state law (RSA 193:13) to the school board, who may set reasonable terms for readmission. Exclusion from school may, under state law, be only on exposure to a communicable disease (RSA 200:2). However, a school board may under a reasonable set of rules, exclude a student from school for other reasons.

The courts make a difference between suspension and expulsion. Suspension is generally viewed as temporary and conditional, whereas expulsion is usually permanent or for an extended period of time. Even though state law places the authority to suspend a student with the school board taking away the exercise of such power from any other person or officer, the courts have held that under urgent circumstances, where the interests of the school require it, a teacher, principal or superintendent may suspend a student pending submission of the case to the school board. Thus, it is possible for a student to be temporarily suspended and disciplinary action fully resolved at the lowest possible level without ever coming to the attention of the school board. Any school board would be well advised to prepare a policy in this area. The decision to expel a student, however, is an authority delegated only to the school board and should never be taken without an in-depth examination of the legal and moral aspects of the case.

CONDITIONS OF EXPULSION

A student may be suspended for any breach of the disciplinary code or for misbehavior that is damaging to good government or the morals of the other pupils, whether specifically covered or not by school board policy. Such codes and policies can not be in conflict with constitutional limits. The acts of parents that interfere with school discipline, or will not conform or make their children conform to school rules can result in suspension of the student regardless of the student's conduct. The law does not require a hearing—formal or informal—to suspend or expel a student. However, any request for a hearing ought to be granted and the right of the accused to legal counsel be observed.

School boards should note that courts have held that a child may not be expelled from school merely because the pupil is difficult to teach. Disruptive behavior and learning difficulties are often symptoms of emotional disturbance which requre special education combined with psychiatric therapy. Expulsion under such circumstances would be wrongful and the board should make every effort to provide appropriate special education for such a student.

School boards are not liable for errors in judgment when expelling a student provided the board acted in good faith and without malice. However, if it can be proven that a school board acted maliciously, illegally, in bad faith or arbitrarily in expelling a student, civil law takes over and suit for damages may be instituted against the board. The burden of proof for wrongful suspension again rests with the plaintiff, since the courts presume that the board acts in good faith and without malice.

THE MARRIED STUDENT

Student marriages present an entirely different problem to school boards requiring a separate policy apart from disciplinary rules and regulations. Legally, marriage—by itself—is not sufficient grounds to deny a person the right to attend school. This court opinion is supported by the First and Fourteenth Amendments of the United States Constitution. With this fact as a base, a school board may draft a policy for married students which sets some specific regulations on attendance, which must be reasonable and not reflect any personal prejudice of board members. Most policies prohibit married students from participating in athletics, extra-curricula activities and social functions. The courts have given their support to this rule by holding that such activities are a privilege of attending school and not a vested right.

All married students requesting attendance will not be teenagers. A few will be mature adults seeking a diploma. However, a policy statement should make clear that every opportunity is being extended to complete requirements for a high school diploma without prejudice because of marital status or age. However, mature and responsible behavior may be expected of all married students.

THE PREGNANT STUDENT

The pregnant student—in or out of wedlock—is a situation which all school boards must deal with from time to time—and the problem is growing. In 1940, seven out of every 1,000 high school girls had a baby out of wedlock. Today that figure has increased by 250% with seventeen out of every 1,000 having illegitimate children—and an estimated equal number of girls who undergo illegal or self-induced abortions. There will be more pregnant teen-agers in the next ten years—even if the rate remains the same—simply because there are going to be more teen-aged girls.

School boards seem to be developing a broader and more tolerant approach toward school-age mothers hoping to bring the child back into the educational mainstream. It does not matter what color her skin—how high she tests in intelligence—what her economic status or home environment might be, a pregnant child needs help from society in general—and the school in particular— for herself and her baby.

In the recent past, there seemed to be no question that a school board had the right to exclude a pregnant student from school on the basis of presumed adverse effects on morale, disruption of the smooth function of the school and interference with student discipline. However, a surge of Civil Rights cases in the United States Supreme Court has caused school boards to review policy statements concerning pregnant students. The expulsion, or forced withdrawal, of a pregnant pupil may be held a denial of the equal protection of the law under the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution. The Supreme Court has already given this interpretation to similar aspects of school discrimination. Excluding a student from school solely because of pregnancy could expose the school board to a law suit vindicating the rights of the expelled student.

Furthermore, in the absence of tangible evidence of the adverse, disruptive, and interference effects of a pregnant pupil, a court may hold that such policy statements reflect personal beliefs and personal prejudices. Also, a policy that places the burden of judgment upon the Administration to force withdrawal for health reasons demands medical decisions by the Administration which it is not qualified under the law to make. Such a decision may be left to the student's personal physician or the school physician to determine that her health or safety would be endangered by continuing her education.

Specifications within policy may call for reporting pregnancy to the school authorities as soon as it becomes known; relief from participation in physical education activities; a letter from the student's physician stating the health of the student and indicating whether the pregnancy would be endangered by continuing education; a written or oral statement from the student's family, if the pupil is unmarried, indicating knowledge of the situation; the privilege of voluntary withdrawal without prejudice; opportunity for readmission to school after the birth of the baby; and other related regulations.

CONTINUING EDUCATION

Some communities have provided various means of continuing education for all pregnant students which varies from allowing them to remain in their regular classes—to home tutoring—to special classes after the close of the regular school day. In all cases, special counseling is mandatory to assist the girl in handling her present program and adjusting to school after the birth of the baby.

Where the system has been used, the in-school program—either in regular class situations or in special after school classes—has been the most successful by a wide margin, with 63 percent being eventually graduated from high school. Under the home tutoring plan, only 10% ever return to school. Girls may take as many as four academic subjects under present programs but few attempt more than two or three courses. Increased home study is assigned which will require several hours of work daily. The entire program should be under the constant supervision of guidance personnel.

DISTRICT ORGANIZATION AND REORGANIZATION

In the days of limited transportation and communication, when the people of the New Hampshire villages had diffused into remote areas, the district schoolhouse became a necessity. An outdoorsman today can take a hundred year old map and follow roads long-since reclaimed by the forest. Along the way, the hiker can locate the many cellar holes and cemeteries that testify to the flourishing enclaves of hardy Granite Staters. Always, the map will show the district schoolhouse. These "one-roomers" existed in unlimited numbers. The little town of Sanbornton had 29; Alton operated 22; Weare and Warner had 26 and 24 respectively; and every other New Hampshire community tended to divide into an excessive number of districts.

By the latter part of the 19th century, the agricultural economy was giving way to the industrial explosion in New England. The young people, seeking an easier and better way of life, abandoned the farms and headed for the cities. Thus, the district school dried up and the centralized concept returned to favor. The Town School Act of 1885 did away with the district system and returned to the one town-one district idea, with the control placed in the hands of supervising and prudential committees. The Act even permitted the discretionary expenditure of up to 25 percent of the school money for transportation of pupils remotely distant from a strategically located school. The number of school districts went into an amazing plunge from 1,890 to 275. Also, the Act effected the closing of 500 one-room, one-teacher, all grades schools.

This massive consolidation had an upgrading influence on New Hampshire education but after the immediate effects had worn off, things hit a plateau that would last for fifty years. Even the Great School Act of 1919, which established for the first time state supervisory control over the then grossly weak New Hampshire schools system, did not make any real overture to further consolidation until the Legislature passed the Cooperative School Act of 1947, which provided the legal basis and financial incentives for the establishment of larger and better administrative units. This law enabled two or more existing districts to legally unite into a single district, with a common school board, to be known as a cooperative.

COOPERATIVE SCHOOLS

The purposes of this act were excellently defined in the 1948 State Board of Education report. "The urgent need to bring adequate educational opportunities to hundreds of rural boys and girls should encourage school districts to combine so as to share the costs of constructing new and enlarged facilities and providing adequate programs of education which would be impossible for them to finance as individual units."

Ten years later, by 1958, only six cooperative school districts had been formed. The traditional "home rule" attitude, with towns fearing loss of control over the local school if they joined with their neighbors in a cooperative district, slowed the effort despite over 100 study groups who had explored the potentials of the system.

The 1961 Legislature, dissatisfied with educational progress, appointed an Interim Commission on Education to study and report on the school problems within the state. Out of this study, among many other things, came the idea for the Authorized Regional Enrollment Area Schools which was enacted into law in 1963.

THE AREA SCHOOL

The concept of the AREA school is for the usually smaller district (sending) to transport its students to the usually larger district (receiving) and pay tuition on a contractual basis. Since the sending district is not dissolved into a cooperative and the local school board remains and has control over any schools which may continue to operate within the district, some of the prejudice that existed against the cooperative is eliminated. The school board of the receiving district has full authority of all policy for the receiving district's program.

However, provision is made in the AREA Act for joint school board meetings of all receiving and sending districts at designated times throughout the year, or on request. Such meetings are for consulting and advising on matters of mutual interest and are supervised by an agent of the State Department of Education usually the superintendent. Such meetings are informative only and have no authority to make policy. This authority, by law, remains with the receiving district. Educators view the AREA plan as a possible stepping stone to the organization of a Cooperative District, if such a move seems mutually beneficial to the receiving and sending districts at some later date.

Thus, at the present time New Hampshire has three different types of school organizations—independent school district, cooperative school district, and Authorized Regional Enrollment Area—serving the educational needs of the state. This triple choice reflects the upward swing in educational goals within a small state which must find means of adjusting to vast variations in population density from the tiny rural to the medium sized city.

Geographical conditions determine the administrative unity of the district. The independent district in New Hampshire is a single town; the cooperative district is an entirely separate governmental unit composed of two or more towns; and the AREA school has its administrative organization in the receiving district. The jurisdictional structure of all districts stems from the school board, which must by state law be composed of three or more members—one-third of whom shall be chosen each year by the voters. To prevent the tie vote, the membership must be an uneven number and in some cooperative districts combining a number of small towns, the size of the school board is as high as 13 at the present time.

ELECTED OFFICIALS

There are four other classes of elected officials within each district:- moderator, clerk, treasurer and auditors. The moderator and clerk function only on matters which pertain to school meetings. The treasurer has custody of all district money and pays all the bills on school board orders. The auditor makes a yearly fiscal accounting and report. The legal duties of these district officers are described in RSA 197. In a cooperative school district, the clerk, treasurer and auditors are appointed—not elected—to office.

In addition to elected officials, the school board is required to appoint a truant officer to enforce the laws and regulations which apply to attendance (RSA 189:36) and census agents to enumerate annually the children with the district from birth to 18 years of age (RSA 18938).

DISTRICT DUTIES

All school districts are political sub-divisions of the state and are corporations with power to sue and be sued, hold and dispose of real and personal property, and make pertinent contracts (RSA 194:2). The district is empowered by law (RSA 194:3) to raise money in the conduct of school business to:-

(1) purchase land;
(2) erect and maintain buildings;
(3) insure buildings, employees and pupils;
(4) landscape grounds;
(5) buy furniture and supplies;
(6) acquire school busses or any other transportation vehicles;
(7) provide health and sanitations;
(8) and pay debts.

If it is in the best interest of the students and the local citizens, a district may include military drill as part of its physical education program; instruct in the use of firearms; hold night school and adult education programs as part of its public service.

ORGANIZATION WITHIN THE SCHOOL

The organization of the schools within the district is a discretionary decision of the school board and throughout the state takes

numerous forms depending upon which sort of division is best suited to the individual district. In the days of the common school, there were only eight elementary grades in public education. Any form of higher learning was supplied by New Hampshire's many private academies and seminaries. Then in 1866, with the establishment by law of the public high school, the 8-4 system came into being by simply adding the four year high school to the eight year common schools—so much so that when educators suggested other groupings it was met with much resistance.

However, it has finally been relaxed so that other patterns are now in use. A popular combination, where districts have a separate junior high school, is the 6-2-4, which allows the twelve to fourteen year olds to adjust themselves to departmentalized education—where the students have a schedule of courses and move from room to room to a different teacher for each subject. It acts as a conditioning period before high school. Others argue for a 6-6 combination since secondary school subjects in departments starts with the seventh grade. Still others claim that more of a span should occur between learning the basic skills of education that are taught in the elementary grades and the more sophisticated secondary programs and thus advocate a 6-3-3 or 5-3-4 division of organization.

Cities with integration problems are now using a 4-4-4 combination to preserve the neighborhood school for the young children and propound the theory that the sociological problems are greater and more easily solved between the ages of ten and fourteen. The junior high school concept has come under attack in recent years and the 4-4-4 eliminates it completely. States with active junior college programs, such as New York and California, are trying out a 6-4-4 pattern which combines the seventh and eighth grades with what was formerly the freshman and sophomore high school years. Then the junior and senior years of high school are combined with two years of junior college.

Finally, there is the 0 pattern—or the non-graded school. A great deal of highly successful experimental work is being done along these lines and is looked upon by educators as one of the great changes of the future. This theory flies in the face of much tradition from the college level downward but as research uncovers more of the mystery that now clouds knowledge of the actual learning process, the non-graded approach may well become the education of tomorrow.

There is no single pattern that may be universally applied to every situation. Each school board, however, should review its own internal organization from time to time and determine if the current combination is doing the proper job under present circumstances.

REORGANIZATION

There is no "average" student. When one cuts across any segment of the school population, all sorts of ability, all different types of talent, a large swing in the degree of motivation, a mixture of tastes and social backgrounds and varying degrees of emotional

stability appear on the charts. No matter how willing a small community may be to furnish a comprehensive educational program to meet all these variations, it constantly runs head on into the great roadblock—money. Regardless of the financial sacrifice which citizens are willing to make to hire the best teachers, buy the best equipment, and build the best schools, a limited tax base will hold these sacrificial tendencies down. Ironically, too, small schools cost more per pupil to operate and the high price tag buys less education.

The 1966 State Department of Education census shows 45 high schools in the state with less than 300 students and 30 of these have less than 200 enrolled. There are only 34 high schools with enrollments over 300. At the all school level—kindergarten, elementary and secondary—there were 62 school districts with a total school population of less than 300. These figures indicate the need for school boards in these small districts—and some already have—to evaluate their educational program and the per pupil cost. If the first seems low and the second seems high, it is time for action.

If there were two students eligible to take a course in French, could you afford a language laboratory? With a 100 student high school, could you afford a full time librarian and ten thousand books on the shelves? Are the schools in your district large enough:-

(1) to be operated efficiently and economically in the best interest of the taxpayer;

(2) and to offer the students a program of equal educational opportunity measured by acceptable standards of quality education?

THE ONE-ROOMER

New England's romantic "little red schoolhouse" is as antique as its ox yokes—both filled a valuable need at the height of their glory but have lost their effectiveness in the modern world. Clinging stubbornly to the traditional attitude of "what was good enough for my grandfather is good enough for my children" is not a valid nor convincing reason for burdening the local property owner with a high per pupil cost and short-changing the students of the district with sub-standard educational opportunity. Districts with school populations below the point of efficient and effective operation, have a duty to investigate and consider reorganization into a cooperative or regional enrollment area school.

Reorganization in its simplest terms is a union of two or more school districts that are socially, economically and geographically compatible into a larger district which will have a sufficient school population for the provision of a higher quality program. One method of reorganization is the cooperative district and the other an AREA school.

THE COOPERATIVE SCHOOL

A Cooperative District is a complete union of all the former districts into an educationally and financially independent corporation. All school property becomes common to the district. The costs

are shared by one of several formulae—either average daily membership or equalized valuation or a combination of the two in varying ratios. The operating expenses and the capital outlay are often pro-rated under different cost-sharing formulae. The authority is held by a school board formed of representatives from each town.

THE AREA SCHOOL

An Authorized Regional Enrollment Area plan is a contractical agreement among districts to develop a larger educational program—but instead of the formation of a whole new district, pupils are sent to a school in another district called a "receiving district," on a long term tuition basis with cost of operations and capital outlay apportioned to all districts involved through the tuition form of payment. The administrative difference is that the school board of the "receiving district" sets all AREA school policy.

Both forms are equally eligible for building aid and incentive aid from the State Department of Education which greatly alleviates the financial burdens which districts generally incur in reorganization. The state laws which apply to Cooperative and AREA districts are contained in RSA 195 and RSA 195-A.

SEEKING HELP

Since the basic aim of reorganization is to improve the quality of public education through stronger school districts, the State Department of Education is most willing to make its resources available to assist in informing, evaluating, planning, preparing and putting into action all the details of reorganization. The State Department of Education can not compel reorganization nor urge it vigorously so as to place a district under pressure. All the Department may do is encourage investigation where reorganization seems to be the most practical solution. If this proves to be the best answer, the State will provide advice and assistance from the starting line to the finish tape—and beyond. It is the local voters who must make the ultimate decision to reorganize—not the board, but movement in this direction must be made by the board.

The State Department of Education has prepared a complete guide for school district reorganization which covers clearly and concisely, every step of the process. It takes reorganization from the planning stages to the final vote and provides answers to every question any school board might wish to ask. Copies may be obtained directly, or by the District Superintendent, from the State Department of Education, Concord. The Department is further willing, upon request, to supply available staff members as consultants during any or all phases of reorganization.

The aim of reorganization is not to save money—because this is not generally the case—but to make better, more efficient use of the tax dollar while at the same time creating a better education opportunity for the students. Sociologists agree that good schools make better communities and better communities maintain and attract

better citizens—and everybody benefits, especially the children who will be the future citizens.

Since it is the taxpayer of each district who must eventually make the decision through the ballot box, any attempt at reorganization must include a vigouous publicity program through the news media, through public meetings and through friendly conversation. A public fully informed of the advantages of school reorganization is an essential ingredient of success with the vote. Sentiment and local pride are sometimes difficult to overcome—but the one great selling point is better education for all the children. There is no better argument.

Parents and citizens become emotionally involved in reorganization. An intelligent board can turn such emotion to its own cause by proper advance preparation. Reorganization can not be forced upon districts—it must be wooed and won.

CURRICULUM: WHAT IS IT?

Curriculum is the most important responsibility of school boards. Curriculum is a composition of all school board activities of the educational program with the district. It is no longer thought of as a schedule of courses, but is made up of all the activities which are under the sponsorship of the school board, whether it be a football team—a science fair—a school dance—or a field trip to a museum. All activities are part of the learning process, and must be considered units of the curriculum.

Improving the teaching-learning process is the basic aim of educators. Stepped-up research in both teaching and learning constantly produces changes in the process which make it mandatory for school boards to remain alert to these changes and regularly review curriculum. As laymen, a school board must look to its superintendent and other professional staff members for advice and guidance.

One basic concept of the learning process on which teaching techniques are based is that intelligence is born out of action. Knowledge is not just viewing an object or an event but acting on it and understanding the process. For a child to see 2 2 4 on the black board and copy it does not increase a child's knowledge. If the child can transform or modify what it sees on the blackboard into action—such as: take two apples and two apples and put them together to make four apples—the 2 2 4 becomes knowledge. Thus, it becomes evident that all activities of the school form a segment of the curriculum and much of the quality of an educational program is determined by the curriculum offered.

MANDATORY CURRICULUM

State laws and state board regulations place certain mandatory curriculum requirements upon school boards—such as the length of the school year—minimum requirements for high school graduation—teaching the effects of alcohol and narcotics—flying the American flag daily—standards for accreditation—and other specific mandates that are directly related to curricula. Beyond the few "must" inclusions, a local board has broad permissive powers in setting educational policy. For example, the state regulations require a minimum school year of 180 days, but if a local board feels that 183 or 185 days are necessary to carry out the educational program of the district, it has the permissive power to vote such an extended school calendar. Thus, acting within the framework of mandatory regulations

of the state, each board will exercise its permissive powers to develop a curriculum that best meets the needs of the community.

Too often school board members feel inadequate—as laymen—to intelligently act on recommendations made by the superintendent and other professional staff for curricula changes. Although, there is danger in over-simplification, a board member can function more effectively by knowing the "bare bones" of the two basic concepts of modern education held by the public.

(1) One large group clings to the idea that public schools should limit the curriculum to training the mind. On the elementary level the main job is to teach reading, writing, speaking and arithmetic. In high schools, students should be taught academic subject matter in a sequence of courses. The argument is that a liberal arts education for everyone will produce the best citizen. Under this theory, since every student has the same educational opportunity, each will be held responsible for an equal amount of learning.

(2) A second large segment of the citizenry believe that schools should train students for individual self-realization and prepare them to find their own niche in life so they might function in a democratic society. This theory is based on the fact that all students have individual differences—that children are not equal in growth, intelligence or ability.

Both of these concepts have merit—both have fault. If the first theory were entirely practical, America would be populated with an intellectual elite. However, the complex character of society requires a majority of citizens to fill ordinary jobs. All children do not have the same talents or skills for strictly academic learning and there is great need for an educational program that prepares these students to take a place in the unskilled, non-professional job market.

The theory of self-realization is the better educational concept—but is unrealistic since every student represents a complete set of new objectives. It means the school would have to be all things to all children in taking on such an impossible task—and the end result would be chaos or, at least, a half-done job. Altho, the introduction of computerized education could bring self-realization into an effective possibility.

At present, the answer lies somewhere between the two concepts and board policies should be based upon a system that teaches a child to explore and reason; provides practical skills for an employable place in the business and labor world; encourages the academic effort for those students who desire higher education; and promotes the physical, moral and social well-being of the child. A curriculum based on these ideas will fill the educational needs of any district.

CURRICULUM LINES

Three important curriculum lines run through all school sys-.ems:- academic, for the college-bound; practical for the job-bound; and special for the handicapped. There has been a dramatic increase in the past ten years of students planning some form of higher education- college, junior college, trade or business schools. This

has resulted in a wider election of academic courses—the liberal arts and sciences.

A second segment—often a majority of the student body depending upon the individual community—is electing the practical courses:- commercial and industrial. They want to prepare for the job market or home making. This area of curriculum requires constant review to keep up with the demands of the job-world. Too often public schools are teaching skills in the commercial and industrial arts courses that are obsolete or being faded out. The electronic age has brought a whole new set of specifics into being for educators to consider. To have really practical value such courses need constant consultation with commerce and industry to keep them up to date. In this segment, there is much crossing of educational lines. The value of a broad general education is stressed. Skilled and commercial employment requires a high order of intelligence. It is desirable to provide a strong educational background and plan for post-secondary training to learn specific techniques—either on-the-job or in some accredited training program.

The third division is the handicapped which is discussed in a separate section. This is a relatively new area of curriculum. In the past children with learning or behavior problems were "dumped" into industrial arts or homemaking programs for lack of a better solution. Unfortunately, this had the effect of downgrading these departments and rendering little educational help to the handicapped child. After proper diagnosis, many of the handicapped may be educated to the extent of their ability in life adjustment courses which prepare the handicapped to make a practical and psychological adjustment to their daily problems. A small percentage must of necessity be educated in special classes or committed for residential treatment.

Curriculum must be responsive to the society in which it exists. There is no final answer to all the educational questions. School boards must keep policies flexible and current with district demands and needs. The problems are endless. The solutions often difficult. Consider a few of the questions that boards may face in the coming decade:- Is the school year long enough or should there be some form of year-round school? Should there be compulsory kindergarten—the age lowered to five or four—raised to 17 or 18? What do report cards and promotions mean—do they mean the same thing from school to school—district to district—state to state? Should report cards be abandoned? Is ability grouping beneficial or a form of undemocratic segregation? How well is the school doing—is there a specific answer—can results be really measured accurately? The answers to these and many more must be forthcoming as education moves ahead.

THE HANDICAPPED CHILD

School boards face a host of "new" problems in the years just ahead with providing special education for handicapped children. The problem is really not new. The physically, mentally and emotionally handicapped child has always been part of the school population—a tenth part. It is conservatively estimated that ten out of every 100 pupils has a serious enough handicap to require special education. Little—or nothing—has been done for these children. School boards and educators have simply ignored them hoping that somehow the problem would dissolve. Old superstitions, false theories, fears and misunderstanding about the handicapped are disappearing. Public interest in these unfortunates is on the rise with an increasing demand for school boards to come to grips with the situation. The addition of Title VI (Handicapped) of ESEA has loosened up tax dollars by pumping Federal funds into this form of special education.

The New Hampshire Legislature has declared a policy of providing "the best and most effective education possible to all handicapped children," (RSA 186-A1), but as yet has failed to appropriate a meaningful amount of money to implement this worthy declaration. However, there are steps which school boards can take toward meeting some of the problems. The first would be to enumerate all handicapped children and the second to classify each one. In fact, the state statutes (RSA 186-A:4) require school boards to report the number of handicapped children in each district by October first of each year and the State Board in turn will submit an approved plan for educating these children (RSA 186:5).

HOW MANY

An enumeration can be made by asking each teacher to submit the names of all children who are having either learning or behavior problems in class. Each name is evaluated and discussed by a review board consisting of the teacher, principal, guidance counselor and the school nurse, doctor and psychologist where needed. The average list of names submitted by a teacher will be 25 percent of the class. However, by review and discussion about 60% of the cases can be readily handled outside of special education by extra tutoring or

special attention by the classroom teacher. The remaining ten percent will require some form of special education depending upon the type and extent of the handicap.

The classification of the truly handicapped can be carried out to a large extent by the school staff. Speech defects are simple to identify; common eye tests and hearing tests can be given by the school nurse; crippling is self-evident and other physical defects may be determined by the school doctor. Specialists probably will be needed to diagnose the mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, socially maladjusted and those with learning disabilities, since brain damage is involved in many of these children.

CLASSIFICATION

There are seven generally accepted classes of handicapped children:-

(1) Speech Impairment—stuttering, stammering, inability to pronounce certain letters, such as "W" and "Y", cleft palate, cerebral palsy and other contributing causes.
(2) Sight Impairment—totally blind or partial-vision.
(3) Deafness—totally deaf or hard of hearing.
(4) Mentally Retarded—educable or merely trainable.
(5) Crippled or Neurologically Impaired—limited physical abilities or limited strength.
(6) Emotionally Disturbed and Socially Maladjusted——disruptive behavior or incorrigibles.
(7) Learning Disabilities—disoriented child but not mentally retarded.

HANDLING THE PROBLEMS

School boards have many ways to handle the education of the handicapped student either within or outside of the district, depending upon the type and degree of the handicapping. Some of the acceptable programs now being used around the nation are:-

(1) **Special Classes** for teaching children with the same type of handicap, such as the mentally retarded. The class may serve a single district, if the need exists, or be organized to serve all districts within a union on a cost sharing basis.
(2) **Special Schools** serving one particular type of handicap on a day or residential basis, as blindness, deafness, crippling or emotional disturbance.
(3) **Divided Classes** in which part of the instruction is received in special classes and the balance in the regular classroom.
(4) **Home and Hospital Instruction** by tutors or electronic devises which connect the child directly to his regular classroom.
(5) **Consultants and Therapists** who visit schools on a part time basis working with the classroom teacher in the regular classes or with the handicapped child on an isolated or small class basis.
(6) **Residential Treatment Centers** where the child remains on a 24-hour basis receiving both classroom instruction and psychiatric therapy, generally used for the more severe emotional disturbance and learning difficulties of psychic origin.

Once a school system has identified the need for special education and made a determination to provide special education for its handicapped children, there are a number of places to which the district may turn for advice, assistance and even financial aid. First, should be the Special Education Division of the State Department of Education in Concord but other sources to which a board may turn for general help are:-

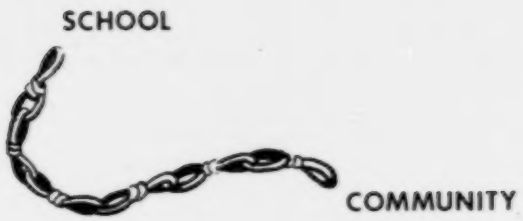
Special Education Department
United States Office of Education
Washington, D. C.

Teachers College
Columbia University
New York City

Special Education Department
University of Illinois
Chicago, Illinois

Council for Exceptional Children
National Education Association
1201 16 Street NW
Washington, D. C.

There are many other associations, foundations and societies willing to cooperate in such programs of special education for the handicapped who limit their interest to a specific handicap. The State Department of Education can supply the names and addresses of such organizations to any interested school board.



LINKAGE WITH THE COMMUNITY

Gone are the days when a school board could function in quiet obscurity. The effects of the Right-To-Know law and the demand from the various publics for information and accountability have brought school boards and the schools out into the open where they belong. The board that does not now have a policy that sets the goals and defines the procedures for establishing lines of communication with taxpayers, staff and students had better develop public relations guidelines without delay. Waiting for the next crisis or the next big capital outlay that needs public selling may be too late. Public relations is not a "wonder-drug" to be injected when something goes wrong. A board must demonstrate a real commitment to constantly communicate with the public that it serves.

Passing out information about the school is only ONE part of the process. Listening to taxpayers, parents, staff and students is the SECOND—and equally important part of public relations. OUT-PUT plus FEEDBACK equals PUBLIC RELATIONS! One can not survive without the other because the out-put of information, in and by itself, is no guarantee that those who receive it will understand it. A board must learn how people feel about the schools—and this is the listening part. All other factions taken into consideration, the most "believable" source of feedback will be the students.

How others feel about the district schools is an outgrowth of:

1. The experiences they have had with the schools—good or bad--true or false.
2. The information they have recieved from the schools. Unless the board has a planned and systematic process for public relations, the attitudes and images that people will have about the schools may be grossly distorted. Therefore, the goal of a public relations policy is to reach a balance between what is actually happening in the schools and what the public THINKS is happening. This is a difficult goal to achieve but, nevertheless, any policy must strive to have this as the ideal result.

If you already have a public relations policy, bring it out for review. Check the goals!

1. Does the policy provide "two-way" communication?
2. Is there a commitment to systematically receive in-put?
3. Is there a balance between out-put and feedback?
4. Does it conform to the Right-To-Know law?

5. Will it achieve that delicate balance of public understanding?
6. Will the facts square with the public's image of the facts?
7. Will it communicate with taxpayers, parents, staff, students and special interest groups?

An essential element of any public relations policy should be the establishment of a communications network and the delegation of responsibility for gathering in-put and distributing out-put. On a school by school basis, the principal should be the key person with guidelines that allow the principal authority to develop a public relations network that fits the indivdual school. Obviously, a teaching-principal in a two-room schoolhouse will not have much of a problem—but the head of a large city school would require a sophisticated system.

The board's two-way communication program should be through the Office of the Superintendent with the board bearing final responsibility. Again the sophistication of the network will depend upon the environment to be affected. The important point is that the board make a commitment to communicate with its public by writing a public relations policy that keeps the in-going and out-going lines continuously open.

Public relations experts have determined that the level of interest in information coming out of the educational system is ranked in the following order:

1. **PEOPLE** Names make news and the public wants to know about people—students, staff or board—above every other subject. Who did what, when and why!
2. **THINGS** Ranking second is news about inanimate things—budgets, buildings, programs, organizational activities and such.
3. **IDEAS** Bottom of the list are theoretical items. The thoughts, the concepts, the impressions and beliefs concerning education. Such attitudes probably rank third in public interest because being either abstract or subjective in content, it is more easily misunderstood and creates greater difficulty in achieveing that balance between what actually is expressed and what the public thinks is expressed. For example, trying to explain "open education" or "alternate programs" to the public is extremely difficult.

PUBLIC RELATIONS AND COMMUNICATIONS

Three elements are essential to every school system—an educational program, students and financial support. The school board is a governmental agency with supervisory responsibility for all three-but provides only one—the program. The citizenry supplies the students and the money. As major providers, they have a desire—and right—to be informed. Thus, public relations are born—not public relations in the one-way, hard sell sense of the advertising world but a two-way communications system between schools and the public with both output and feedback. Dealing with the public is a

principal job of every school board, so it is constantly involved in public relations whether it has a formal program or not. In the face of the inevitable, school boards should have written policies for both public relations and communications to bring a sense of order into such responsibilities and establish a framework within which the Superintendent, administrators and staff may function. A written policy delegates authority while permitting any business to be handled at the lowest level.

OUTPUT

What is output? What forms does it take? It must be recognized that successful functioning in a free society is largely dependent upon an informed citizenry. Public education in the past was left pretty much to the school committee but today a volume of public interest has developed in schools. There has been a rise in the general educational level of society and the public is now able to discuss school matters with great authority. Educational change is made many times today because of public demand. It becomes apparent that if a school board is to sustain itself as a trustee of public education—and the quality is to be upgraded—it must be responsive to informed public demands. The flow of information should be continuous, interesting and factual.

There are four general classifications of output:—mass media; school publications; public affairs; and direct contact.

MASS MEDIA

A mass medium is any organized distribution of news to the general public. It could be a newspaper, a radio or television station, a magazine, a periodical or any other means of broadcasting news by the printed word, spoken word or graphic arts. Whatever mass media is available to the district should be utilized. It generally falls upon the superintendent or the principals—rather than the board—to write and distribute news releases, but some districts may appoint a board member or hire a public relations person to handle the chore. It is not to be supposed that board members have journalistic talent—but there are some simple ground rules which apply to news reporting.

Any news story is a thrice told tale—once in the headline—once in the lead paragraph—and once in the body of the story. Any news release should, also, answer the five "Ws"—who, what, where, when and why? The editor will supply the headline but the writer of the release should attempt to answer all "Ws" in the opening paragraph so that the reader can get the full gist of the story from the lead. If interest can be built up in the lead, the reader can be lured into reading the body of the story to find out what meat will be hung on the skeleton. This technique may sound over-simplified but its application will facilitate preparation of news releases. Feature and human interest articles will require a story teller's style.

What makes news? Names make news—events make news. School

board action that effects change is always newsworthy—staff changes or additions—student, staff and school honors or accomplishments—announcement of and follow up on school affairs—board transactions—school construction and alteration—new equipment—bus transportation changes—new teaching techniques—course additions—athletic and other extra-curricula events—happenings with humor or human interest—financial standing—long range planning and all the other items that make up the school complex—including failures, disasters and mistakes. Public support is easier to rally, if a school board has a reputation for being frank, and honest with educational news—good or bad. Obvious attempts to cover up or suppress mistakes or unfavorable events have a way of backfiring by the spread of misinformation over the grapevine.

Treat all mass media news gatherers fairly and without bias. Just because a board might anticipate a favorable press from a particular paper is not justification for exclusive distribution of the news. A board must be able to take its lumps as well as kudoes from the mass media. Change—most times for the better—may arise out of dissent. Schools operate in a fish bowl. There is no place to hide, so the mass media should be granted free and full access to school business at all times—excepting, of course, those items which must be dealt with in private executive session as defined by board policy.

SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS

School publications comprise a variety of things:—annual reports, student year-books and papers, letters to parents either by direct mail or student distribution, teacher recruiting pamphlets, course selection guides, student and teacher handbooks, descriptive guidance brochures to accompany college applications, staff and administrative reports, films and slides organized for public presentation, and any other similar publications by the school. Careful consideration must be given to how such publications are organized and prepared. They are to speak for the school. All publications should be clear, concise, interesting and attractive with special attention to good art work and printing—or duplication. Sloppy, uninteresting, unreadable and unattractive publications can do more harm than good.

PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Public affairs can do more to "sell" an educational program than any other public relations instrument. It is a two pronged fork. When the citizenry can be attracted to school affairs as first hand observers, there is an opportunity to meet the educational process face-to-face and relate to it. Equally beneficial are the effects upon staff and students, who, knowing they will be on public display, are motivated to higher levels of achievement.

Athletics and similar events are probably the strongest public magnet. The sportsmanlike conduct on the playing field and student deportment in the stands, can give the public a better insight into the character of the school's educational process than the score.

However, sports are only one segment of good public relations. With school board backing, the other segments can be as varied as the imagination and creativeness of the administration and staff. It can include such affairs as:—Parent's night—back-to-school night, choral and instrumental concerts—dramas—science, industrial and fine arts fairs—debates— mathematic competitions—inter-school spelling contests—public suppers—honor society initiations—awards assemblies—Christmas and other seasonal pagents—special lectures—and many other programs of public interest.

The more the public can be involved in school affairs, the more public support a school board might expect for its program. If a board believes in its program, it is justified in taking steps to establish good public relations through good public affairs.

DIRECT CONTACT

Direct contact with the citizenry—not only by the school board—but all school employees—administrators, teachers and non-instructional personnel—can have great effect on public opinion. School systems are subconsciously, as well as overtly, judged by the persons they employ. In most residential communities, the school district is the largest single employer, every one of these employees is a roving ambassador spreading daily impressions of the school system. Interested, enthusiastic and informed employees can become the school's most important public relations medium. School boards should have policies that will keep employees informed of school issues and events and encourage their support. This may be accomplished by staff meetings, word of mouth, and an informative newsletter circulated at regular intervals to all employees. There is an upgrading psychological impact upon a community if a school custodian or hot lunch worker can speak with authority about the background of the new teacher—or the addition of another language to course curriculum—or the recent purchase of a floor cleaning machine that will save time and money.

FEEDBACK

Output creates feedback—not in the same volume but with equal importance. By making full use of the feedback, school boards may learn the drift of public opinion and examine policy in the light of taxpayer demands. Also, there are legal responsibilities which accompany feedback that call for action based upon written policy. Feedback will return over the same general route as output.

Input or feedback often comes without being sought in the form of a critical press or in public complaints. However, any public relations policy should contain some organized attempt to regularly receive input through a number of normal channels, such as:

1. Community-School partnerships or Advisory Committees composed of students, staff, parents or taxpayers.
2. Information coming out of a planned program of Parent-Teacher conferences either in the home or in the school.
3. Analysis of telephone questions or complaints that come through the front office.

4. A study of recurring questions put to educational personnel within the community or in the school.
5. Gossip that is circulating the various grapevines.
6. The use of public opinion polls both in the schools and in the community.

The accumulated in-put from an organized effort must then be translated into effective out-put through whatever public relations technique best fits the situation. Merely gathering in-put without a corresponding effort at out-put only clogs the two-way lines of communication. By broadening public knowledge and understanding of the schools, a board can broaden the base and degree of public support for the system.

Every board must, of course, be prepared for some eventual backlash. For example, through a planned program, the public may come to fully understand the issue—but, to the dismay of the board, does not agree. This is the risk which a board must face with an informed public—but even this eventuality has its positive aspects. Public disagreement with the board is a clear signal for the board to review its own decisions in the light of public discontent. After all, the schools have always functioned by public consent and the board—as elected representatives of the public—may overlook public opinion at its own peril. No public agency can be right all the time!

Mass media will furnish public opinion in several forms:—editorials will express the publishers thoughts, "by-lined" articles the personal point of view of the writer, cartoons the overview of the artist, and letters-to-the-editor the citizens sentiments. These expressions appearing publicly should be evaluated and acted upon by the board. Action does not mean carrying on a running battle in the mass media. Such tactics are self-defeating. Of course, gross error in fact ought to be corrected but contrary opinion is the public right of dissent. Positive news releases which support the educational program and allow the general public to draw their own conclusions make a more subtle and effective impression.

Public affairs become another sounding board of public opinion. PTA's, service clubs, church and business organizations, school hearings and district meetings supply clues to community feeling—and boards should tune in on the positions being voiced. Also, board members are often in demand as speakers and the questions asked of the speaker can reveal a great deal about taxpayer sentiment. When accepting a speaking engagement, a board member is expected to be knowledgeable, fully prepared on his subject, and know how to talk about it in public.

Direct contact feedback expressed in written or verbal communications has legal implications to which school boards must be responsive. It is unlikely that a board would elect to ignore such communications but it would do so with the expectations of the political and legal consequences of such a refusal. Depending upon the content of the communication and the manner of its presentation, refusal to consider a citizens communication violates the First Amendment of the United States Constitution which grants a citizen the right to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

Under the Fourteenth Amendment, the school board is made an instrument of the state and the rights guaranteed by the First Amendment have full force and effect against local boards. This imposes a duty upon school boards to receive and consider certain communications from district employees and citizens.

WRITTEN COMMUNICATIONS

There are two methods which a board may elect to use in considering communications:—

(1) Referral to the Superintendent for review, evaluation and recommendation or

(2) Receipt by the board secretary and disposed of by the board under the administrative control of the Superintendent.

VERBAL COMMUNICATIONS

A written communication may be easily circulated to the board by mechanical duplication but a verbal communication is a more difficult proposition. Verbal protest or advice, not readily defined as an administrative problem to be handled at the lowest level, may be handled in one of three ways:—

(1) The recipient may attempt to be a "message carrier" with the potential danger of representing the verbal communication inaccurately;

(2) Request the petitioner to put the communication in writing; or

(3) Recommend personal appearance before the board for public hearing. In handling a telephone call or individual conversation, a board member must always make it clear to the petitioner that the board may act only as a body, and individual opinions can not speak for the majority.

Internal communications from within the "family circle" are handled as an administrative problem unless an employee is communicating in his role as a citizen. Employment by the school district does not affect a citizen's right of free speech on school matters, providing such speech does not adversely affect or prejudice the educational program or the orderly functioning of the schools.

BOARD ACTION

How may a school board decide which communications may be handled by the administrative staff and which require board action? The "rule of thumb" may be that any communication that deals with policy or challenges the implementation of policy should be acted upon by the board. Extreme caution is urged in the treatment of defamatory communications. To avoid unwitting "publication" of defamatory statements, a school board, or its members, should act only as a passive witness to a defamatory communication and immediately postpone any discussion or action until it has had the opportunity to first seek advice from legal counsel. A school board enjoys certain privileges in discussing defamatory material in regular meetings or executive sessions that tend to isolate it from legal liability. However, outside of a board meeting an individual member is acting as a private citizen with all its attendant risks. No action of

any sort is advised until an attorney has laid down the "ground rules."

Every school board communication is worthy of a response as a mere act of courtesy. The response should be carefully framed and properly signed by the chairman or secretary of the board. The content should be a complete statement in itself, opening with a restatement of the communicants complaint. protest or request to insure that the board understood the import of the communication. The board's reply may then follow in proper perspective that will provide a clear and definite response to the petitioner but not firmly binding the board's hand for any future action on matters of similar concern. This type of general response permits the board to fairly evaluate each communication on its own merits.

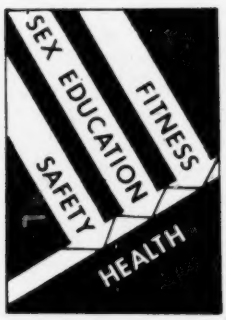
A letter of response signed by a single member of the board but not officially adopted by the board and entered into the minutes can not legally "bind" a board because an individual member may not act for the board. Although communications become a matter of official record when filed with the board, they are not necessarily open to public inspection and could require a court order to release the public communication which the board has classified as confidential. All communications should be kept on file a minimum of three years before they are destroyed.

Communications are the most vital and direct contact which a school board enjoys with the public yet few boards have a written policy to cover this critical connection. By adopting a written policy, a school board assures the citizens of the district that every communication will receive consideration and response while at the same time setting guidelines for the Superintendent in the handling of communications. Those which do not require the attention of the board may be handled at the proper administrative level—and more rapidly than waiting for a board mee' .g.

Boards wishing assistance in preparing a written policy for communications may seek help from the New Hampshire School Boards Association or the State Department of Education. Basically, such a policy should indicate that all written communications addressed to the board which concern themselves with board policy or question its execution should be placed on the next public meeting agenda. However, communications which come under the definition of matters to be heard in executive session should be so heard at the conclusion of the next public meeting.

CITIZEN'S HEARING

A citizen's request for a scheduled hearing should be honored at earliest possible time. The petitioner's name, address, representative capacity and nature of the petition should be placed on the public agenda and a majority vote of the board be required before the request for a hearing will be granted. Hearings that require executive session will not appear on the public agenda but the speaker will be offered the opportunity to be heard in private. A deadline should be set prior to a meeting at which requests for a scheduled hearing at that meeting will be considered.



HEALTH, SAFETY AND SEX EDUCATION

The whole child—body, as well as, mind—is a school responsibility. A board should, therefore, prepare as a part of its total curriculum, policies which reflect the goals in physical education, athletics, preventive health care, safety, and health education.

No school system has a complete educational program unless it has a deep commitment to the health and safety of the students. Health, in this sense, should not be defined as the absence of disease—but in the broader perception of the word; the physical, mental, and social well-being of all students. The mere absence of sickness or the absence of mental or functional disorders is a restricted view of health. The educator's role is the reinforcement of human well-being!

Since many of our major health problems are the result of ignorance, the schools have a great responsibility to change ignorance to understanding. A focus on human services is a way for schools to deal with the whole child and from that point move out into the student's family and then into the community itself. In seeking to develop, through education, a total and healthy human being, the long range effect will be a significant influence upon the society in which that student will work and live.

A board has a number of legal obligations that must be contained in a written policy. Chapter 200 of the Revised Statutes Annotated enumerates these obligations and the basic elements of a total health policy may be found in these state laws. Many of the state health laws are permissive and not mandatory, in that they say a district MAY provide specific services, making implementation of these services a matter of local option.

Such optional choices are the appointment of a school physician, nurse, dental hygienist or aides. However, a 1971 revision of the law now mandates a complete medical examination by a licensed physician of ALL students, when they first enter the system—which would include transfers. (RSA 200:32 and RSA 200:33). It further mandates special examinations (RSA 200:34) under problem circumstances which in the opinion of the proper school authority requires further evaluation.

Mandatory medical examinations are, also, required of all school personnel (RSA 200:36) prior to working in the schools and, also, extends to school bus operators under private contract (RSA 200:37). Specific immunization requirements—such as the former requirement for small pox vaccination—have been dropped in favor of a more flexible law that is tied to recommendations of the state public health agency (RSA 200:38) in critical health situations. For example, an outbreak of a communicable disease might require mass immunization of students to control spreading—but this order might be in effect only so long as the emergency might exist.

Special attention is called to the law relating to emergency care (RSA 200:40). Every board **MUST** have a written policy under the law which sets the guidelines and defines the procedures for providing immediate and adequate emergency care for students and school personnel. There are numerous legal complications which may arise out of emergency treatment or the giving of medication by anyone other than a licensed physician. It is, therefore, critical that any local district's written policy for emergency care be carefully checked by a qualified consultant prior to adoption.

HEALTH RULES

A school nurse under the supervision of the school physician—either full or part-time—is now employed by most school districts in the state. She is delegated the responsibility for most all of the board's health policies. In this field, there is a changing concept in the role of the school nurse in the total educational program. The increasing need for health education which might include sex education; the physiology of the effects of narcotics and alcohol and tobacco and other addictive agents on the human body; the teaching of good daily health habits, such as home dental care, balanced diets and personal hygiene; and related health subjects is leading to the development of the health educator. However, this role will require training in the educational disciplines to qualify as a nurse-teacher. To meet this demand there will probably be changes in state certification under a special title.

With more research in the mental health field and the apparent need for early identification of children with learning difficulties, emotional disturbance and social maladjustment, there is an increasing demand for trained child psychologists on the school staff to handle such handicapped children.

SAFETY

Closely related to health are the school boards responsibilities for the safety of all school children. This includes fire-proofing and fire precautions that meet the specifications of the Board of Fire Underwriters; hallways and stairways and exits and aisles and other building features must meet the highest safety standards; wiring should be in accordance with the National Electrical Code and emergency lighting be available; basic construction must meet National

Building Code standards; police protection should be provided for traffic control when children are entering and leaving buildings; and all other precautions taken to provide maximum safety at all times.

SEX EDUCATION

Sex education in the public schools is rapidly becoming an important issue. The role of the public school in sex education has developed because of sociological changes in society:- an alarming increase in venereal disease; a change of attitude toward pre-marital sex relations; an ever increasing divorce rate; and new concepts in the handling of pregnant teenagers. School boards often postpone policy action on sex education because of a lingering sensitivity over the issue—but demands of parent-teacher groups at all levels—national, state and local—are increasing. It has reached the point where the question is no longer whether sex education should be taught in the schools but how it should be taught.

POLICY FOR SEX EDUCATION

In considering formation of a policy on sex education, a school board should first study present methods employed by other school systems who have developed full and frank curriculum on sex education—but remain sensitive and unsensational in content. Also, it is necessary to accumulate data from other sources, such as the American Medical Association through the school physician; The National Education Association; the privately supported health agency in New York City, Sex Information and Education Council of the United States (SIECUS); the Massachusetts State Department of Health in Boston for their 200 page manual on sex education; and the New Hampshire State Department of Education.

Educators and psychologists feel that sex education should begin with the very young since it is easier to get across the basic facts of reproduction before students are old enough to be emotionally involved in the subject. From the child's first questions, the curriculum should develop accordingly in a wholly natural process. In the elementary grades, this means the teaching of basic biological concepts. Later, the social aspects in addition to the biological are emphasized to give a more comprehensive view of how sex affects personality, the family and society. Then the teen-ager can understand his personal sexuality and not just the physiology of reproduction.

There are many teaching aids available for any sequence of sex education—films, books, pamphlets and various audio-visual props. The need for preparing teachers to handle the program is essential. Many summer workshops, under university sponsorship, are available for the training of teachers in this area. A list of such training centers may be obtained from the State Department of Education.

Sex education can be an extremely controversial issue and should not be imposed upon a district by a school board. A policy for sex

education must be responsive to community demands and be worked out carefully with public involvement and public consent. This sometimes calls for compromise and limitations in order to have public approval—but a restricted policy is better than no policy. A community divided by this one sensitive issue can jeopardize public support for the entire system, so a board needs to weigh the net results of any sex education program with great accuracy and understanding.

A PHYS ED POLICY

Physical education has come a long way since the era when the teacher started the school day by opening the classroom windows for deep-breathing exercises followed by arm extending, flexing and rotating. Today's physical education ranges from basic skills to gymnastics to modern dance to bowling. The more recent emphasis on physical fitness is being modified by activities which teach motor skills and coordination through sports that are more recreational than athletic. Educators have found there are important correlations between physical fitness and learning ability which are generally associated with mental alertness, span of attention and stamina.

In considering a PE policy, a board should be aware that all students do not develop equally nor achieve physical maturity at the same chronological age, so there will be varying degrees of performance. Some children exhibit exceptional coordination, agility and skill. Others range from average to poor, while at the lower extreme are the physically handicapped, the overweight and the chronically ill. A PE policy should be broad enough to serve the needs of all children while fulfilling its primary objective—the development and maintenance of fitness.

To arrive at this balance, a PE program should apportion the effort between vigorous activities—such as touch football, basketball, field hockey and wrestling—and other individual and team sports which stress the development of these motor skills and graceful body movements—such as archery, bowling and some forms of gymnastics and calisthenics. In such a program every child may be taught physical fitness at his own level of achievement and vigor. There are simple, standard tests for physical fitness and muscular coordination which may determine group assignment at the start of the school year. A PE program which gives students a desire to excel should permit them to move up in grouping as their performance improves.

A strong policy should include an intramural program to reinforce skills taught in regularly scheduled PE classes and to stimulate competitive spirit. Participation should be voluntary and may begin as early as the fifth grade. However, to encourage participation the intramurals should offer a broad selection of games, sports and contests on both a team and individual basis.

Interscholastic athletics

Interscholastic athletics serve the whole school in a number of ways. For the students who enjoy contact sports and have a driving urge to compete, they provide a release of stored up energy; for the

potential drop-out, they often tip the scale in favor of staying-in; for school spirit, they supply an image to which the entire student body may relate; for the outstanding performer, they attract college recruitment in the form of scholarship aid; for discipline and sportsmanship, the opportunities are endless; for public relations, interscholastic competitions solidify a large segment of the citizenry behind the whole school; and for a minor consideration, major sports produce some income from gate receipts which should be put into the general fund rather than be retained by the athletic department.

ATHLETIC POLICY

Breadth of athletic involvement depends upon school size. However, a board policy should be flexible enough to add sports to the program as enrollments increase sufficiently to warrant them. In all athletics, the health and safety of the student is a primary board consideration. Therefore, an athletics policy should include rules governing these aspects of the program and might include:

(1) A thorough medical examination and case history prior to reporting for any initial practice session.

(2) In contact sports, a three week conditioning period prior to practice games or game-condition scrimmages.

(3) In hot weather, gradual acclimatization, frequent rest periods, comfortable clothing and careful supervision of the athletes watching for signs of unusual fatigue, inattention, lethargy and unusual awkwardness.

(4) Supply and make compulsory, the use of protective gear in all contact sports, including compulsory use of batting helmets and mouth guards.

(5) Require the presence of a physician at all injury prone sports and allow re-entry of an injured player only by permission of the attending physician.

(6) Protect all the athletes with adequate insurance coverage.

(7) Require all safety precautions be taken to render equipment and playing areas as hazard free as possible.

Interscholastic competition may begin as early as junior high for students who are mature enough for this type of involvement. It affords early training in the basic skills of various sports and valuable experience under actual game conditions. It would be expected that coaches would be recruited from the teaching staff, whenever possible, and adequate compensation be paid depending upon the time involved and the public pressure on the particular sport.

THE MONEY TREE

THE MONEY TREE

Free public education is a great American myth. The phrase is only grammatically correct. Public, yes—but free, no! Education has always cost money from the very moment that our Colonial founders hired a local "dame" to collectively teach their children to read. In paying someone to assume the Puritanical obligation that they were either unable or unwilling to fulfill, education became a profession.

The sources of revenue over the years have varied widely and the burdens of financial responsibility have run a full gamut of distribution. The formula changes rapidly with the expanding complexities of society. Only one factor has remained constant—the rising demand for educational dollars. What is causing this steady increase? How is it being met at the present time? What are the coffers which may be tapped? Is relief possible?

The seemingly insatiable demand for state and local government services has mushroomed from under $10 billion at the end of World War II to over $100 billion at the present time. In this rapid rise, school costs have been responsible for a major portion. But this increase is more staggering, if one makes a comparison with per pupil costs a little over 100 years ago with those of today.

PER PUPIL COSTS

Excerpts from an 1852 school board report published by the Sandwich Historical Society contains the following:- "Ours is the first town in this county in respect to population and wealth; but we appropriate less money per scholar than any other town, save one. Of the 211 towns in this State, reporting last year, 1967 appropriated from $1.01 to $5.08 per scholar, averaging more than $2.00, while this town appropriates only 93 cents to a scholar. Of the 14 towns of lowest rank, 74 cents is the average. If these figures be correct, they show a comparative want of educational enterprise in our town."

JUSTIFYING COSTS

The competition is very keen for the tax dollar between schools and all other government services such as roads, police, fire, welfare,

hospitals and aid for the handicapped. As the pressure mounts, the public grip on the purse strings tightens and cries for relief from a broader based tax echo off the White Mountains. Are the expanding school costs legitimate? Can a school board justify them to the voter? There are, at least, seven excellent reasons to support the educational argument:-

(1) A rising population has placed a severe strain on the classroom capacities. More and more building space, with the teachers to man the new stations, has been a major cause of budget increments. Not only are there more children of school age, but more are attending school for a longer period of years. The number of public school students has increased by 250% since the turn of the century, but the percentage of students continuing on through high school has been twice this figure. So there has not only been an increase in nose count but an increase in the number of "student years" which compounds the statistics.

(2) The fact that a dollar today buys less than one-third of a 1900 dollar takes some of the curse off the cost spiral but this inflationary trend is so gradual that it passes almost unnoticed. To make a fair comparison, all gross budgets should be adjusted to reflect this depreciation in purchasing power of the dollar.

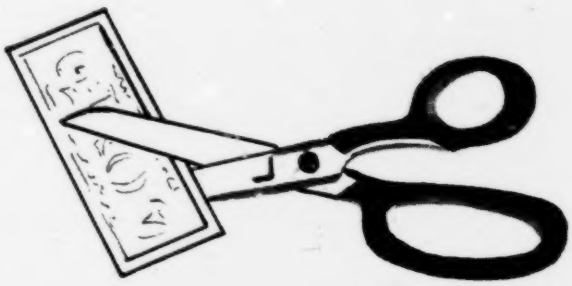
(3) An often overlooked factor has been a gradual extension of the school year, which in many New Hampshire communities is now up to 184 days. In addition, effective compulsory attendance laws have pushed the annual average attendance for a student from less than 100 days per year in 1900 to nearly 170 by latest attendance reports.

(4) The pursuit of quality has reduced the teacher pupil ratio nearer to the accepted twenty-five figure, while at the same time reducing the number of daily teaching assignments in the departmentalized junior and senior high school programs. This trend contributes sharply to costs.

(5) There is a changing age composition. The number of children and the number of senior citizens have exploded both ends of the population scale adding to the pressures for new schools and teachers but, at the same time, establishing competition for a share of the tax dollar by the oldsters in the form of welfare benefits.

(6) The largest single item in any school budget is teachers' salaries. With more teachers receiving steadily higher salaries, budgets expand accordingly. The end of this rise is not yet in sight.

(7) Increasing prosperity has raised the public's interest in wanting better and more expensive services. Improved curriculum, enlarged libraries, guidance departments, expanded sports, more complete health services, audio-visual aids and broader extra-curricula programs all require more money even though they improve the quality of the education.



CUTTING COSTS

Without sacrificing this quality, there are several ways that school boards can cut costs—but all are directly related to a single component—efficiency of operation. The maximum utilization of the physical plant; effective and imaginative employment of auxillary, non-professional personnel so that higher paid teachers may be relieved of non-teaching, but time consuming, duties; the consolidation of small school districts into larger, more economical units which can offer a broader program at a lower per-pupil cost; and the elimination of small schools with high per pupil cost in favor of transporting to larger, more efficient schools can all help to realistically shave the budget.

RAISING THE MONEY

The well-spring from which educational money is drawn has varied somewhat over the years in composition but has always been the local town pump which has supplied about 90% of New Hampshire's needs. The early Puritans paid tuition but it soon became apparent that some parents could not afford tuition, especially those with large families. Since the local laws compelled children to learn to read, the free school was first born in the United States. Revenues came from the sale or rental of public lands, fish wiers, ferries and duties on skins and furs. Bequests, gifts, subscription and nearly always some form of tuition either in cash or in kind made up the balance.

Many of these forms of money raising continued through the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries with new areas being added as New Englanders groped for ways to meet the then rising cost of education. Even the dog tax and money from license fees charged to peddlers and taverns were included. All these sources proved inadequate and the property tax assumed a larger and larger share of the burden. It was only thirteen years after New Hampshire separated from the Massachusetts Bay Colony, in 1693, that state law gave selectmen the authority to levy taxes on property at an equal rate and assessment for support of the schools.

Historical records from the town of Sandwich reveal that as late as 1786 rights in the school lands were sold, "the interest on the money to be applied to schools, and nothing else." From the same

town records, tuition in the form of kind was still in existence as late as 1825, as parents were required to furnish the fireplace wood in porportion to the number of children in their family who attended school. Today the unsolved fiscal squeeze is still with us and promises to be a thorny issue for years to come.

Just where can School Boards look for revenues on the local, state and federal level?

LOCAL SOURCES

(1) Under existing conditions in New Hampshire, eighty-five to ninety percent of the support for education must come from local sources. This percentage will vary among districts depending upon the total property value and the number of children in average daily attendance. By far the major portion of local funds are raised by taxation of real estate and consequently represents the most critical area of resistance from taxpayers. The real estate tax is an inflexible source of income since it does not move in the same ratio as economic activity. This has meant higher taxes each year for the property owner and the sponge is getting dry. Some communities contain separate governmental units other than school districts, such as precincts, which may be taxed for educational costs.

(2) Tuition is a most important local source of revenue for receiving districts in a Regional Enrollment Area (RSA 195A) but is a negligible factor in most other districts, including cooperatives (RSA 195). Tuition, however, does support summer school and adult education programs in the districts which provide these enrichment opportunities.

(3) All admission receipts and other monies from athletic events must be included in the local revenue and not held out or reserved for the physical education department. In some larger districts this activity represents a considerable income. When considering the scope of the athletic budget, boards can take into consideration the income in relation to the out-go.

(4) With a glorious history of private academies in New Hampshire and with many of these institutions gradually absorbed into the public schools, there remain a number of sizable endowments or trusts which contribute to the support of public education. Depending upon the conditions of the trusts, such funds may or may not be used to reduce the local tax assessment because many such monies must be received as gifts to be used for equipment or some other form of capital outlay and not applied to current operating costs. If there is any doubt about such income, it should be clarified by legal counsel.

(5) Earnings from temporary deposits or investments must be included under receipts. The usual source is from unexpended capital raised by the issuance of bonds or notes for construction or some other form of capital expenditure. These unexpended funds may be prudently invested—usually in 90-day Government paper—by the board, until the money is needed for payment of bills. Interest accruing to capital reserve funds is not treated as current income but is added to the capital reserve fund.

(6) Occasional gifts and bequests are received by school districts along with rental fees of school auditoriums and other facilities. These receipts are generally insignificant but must be shown as income. It is recommended that School Boards include an item in the budget establishing a contingency fund (RSA 198:4b) so that such unanticipated money can be spent legally by the board during the current year—and at the same time provide budget flexibility to meet unanticipated expenses as well.

STATE AID

With New Hampshire ranking 49th among 50 states in state aid to education, School Boards can not look for much relief at the present time from this level of government. However, state funds do ease the burden in new school construction and alteration to existing buildings and do assist towns with a low tax base to meet minimum educational requirements.

(1) **Foundation aid** (RSA 198:10) is the funding method employed by the state to more nearly provide equal educational opportunity for towns whose local effort in raising taxes is not sufficient to meet the standards of adequate high school and elementary school programs. If the per pupil cost of $200 for elementary and $300 for secondary can not be raised by the local effort, the state foundation aid will make up the difference based on average daily membership in the schools.

(2) **State building aid** (RSA 198:15) is designed to ease the critical millstone of new school construction by picking up a sizable portion of the cost. Under present law, the minimum relief any approved construction program will receive is 30% and can go as high as 55% for the receiving district in a Regional Enrollment Area school or a Cooperative, depending upon existing conditions described in the statutes. The money is paid out each year based upon the annual capital outlay to be raised by taxes within the district.

For example, if the district raises $15,000 to make a payment on a school construction bond and the district has a 30% classification under the building aid law, the district will receive a $4,500 reimbursement from the state. The local district, however, must assure the full responsibility for borrowing the money, including annual interest payments. The state's commitment is based on a percentage of the annual capital outlay.

For purposes of computing building costs, the state law does include, in addition to the actual structural costs, site acquisition and development, architectural and engineering fees, purchase of equipment and other costs necessary to make the building ready to house an educational program. There are some strings attached to such grants but they are reasonable and minimal. The State Board can refuse a grant if in its opinion other arrangements would be better and more economical. Also, the State Board must approve of the site plans, specifications and cost figures, which is designed to protect the taxpayer.

(3) **Driver education** has proven itself statistically as an important safety element in a society that has put wheels under teenagers and poured them on to the public highways. Also, statistically driver education has proven costly per-pupil and added difficult problems to course scheduling. The saving of lives is more important than the saving of dollars so the state encourages driver education courses by picking up a portion of the cost. There is no fixed reimbursement but money is distributed out of revenues received from the sale of initial license plates. The amount will vary in direct proportion to the interest shown by New Hampshire car owners.

(4) **Intellectually retarded** and other physically and emotionally handicapped children are basically the responsibility of the local district up to the state average per pupil cost. Beyond that point state aid is available from the State Board of Education, if funds for such service have been approproated by the Legislature. In addition, relief can come from welfare agencies of the county government.

(5) **Sweepstakes money** is paid to the district each year as a flat grant based on per resident pupil basis. The amount distributed depends upon the proceeds earned by this horse racing lottery. So far the sweepstakes has had an insignificant effect upon the reduction of local property taxes returning somewhere between one and two percent of the average gross budget to each district.

(6) **Incentive aid,** state-wide supervision and the area vocational are other minor sources of financial help to the local boards.

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

The contribution of Federal dollars to local districts has been proportionately small at the present time and many programs involve matching funds as incentives to local spending. Federal money has been distributed locally and on a statewide basis under a series of "Titles" in recent years but these programs are under constant change. Any specific reference to Federal money for education would be outdated before the ink was dry.

IMPACTED AID

Serious school problems have been created by the Federal Government in areas where defense projects have been established causing a large influx of families with children of school age but not enlarging the district tax base. To off-set this artificial situation, a formula of per capita payment has been worked out for such impacted areas based on the enrollment of children in public schools whose parents are employed by the Federal government. This support is applied separately to operating expenses and to capital outlay, since historically such defense establishments are in time faded out with changing defense techniques. This leaves the district with empty, unpaid for school buildings. The Federal government has a financial responsibility for any such damage to the local economy and will make equitable adjustments.

Federal education money involves much paper work in making out applications for funds. Of course, no school board should over-

look even small blessings, but the details of obtaining Federal funds require professional treatment either by the Superintendent of Schools or consultants who specialize in the preparation of such applications.

BONDING CAPITAL

Raising capital has become a familiar problem to New Hampshire school boards who are constantly being challenged, by exploding school enrollments, to provide adequate space. Of all the direct legal action which a school board will take, the procedure for raising capital by bonds is the most precise and should never be attempted without legal and financial counsel before, during and after the act. The bonds will be bid and bought in the national money markets, so there is no room for legal error or the entire transaction may be declared void.

It is assumed for the purpose of this discussion on finances that all the preliminary work has been completed:- the physical requirements of the district for, at least, the next five years have been determined; finished architectual plans and valid professional estimates of the total cost established; approval received of the plans and specifications by the State Board of Education (RSA 198-15c and RSA 194-23d); and compliance with the municipal finance act, which limits school district indebtedness to seven percent of its equalized valuation, has been confirmed; or if the bond issue does not comply with this restriction, that permission has been obtained from the Legislature to exceed the seven percent. Also, the board must meet every legal requirement in calling and conducting the meeting because the most common legal challenge to any School Board action is that it was carried out in an illegal meeting.

FLOATING A BOND

In considering a bond issue, a most important decision of the board is when the bonds will mature. The cost of borrowing the money is greatly affected by the length of time the district elects to be in debt. It is a rare community that is wealthy enough to build schools on a pay-as-you-go basis, unless it was over one hundred years ago when a school building could be built for less than $200. Historical records show that the Red Hill school district, in 1830, voted a tax of $119.87 for building a new schoolhouse. In case there is a yearning for the "good old days" of four walls, a fireplace, a roof and an outhouse an 1856 report from the Ethridge district commended its schoolmaster for teaching in a wretched building where scholars could not be made comfortable.

The maturation date of the bonds must be examined in the light of potential community growth in property valuation, its current indebtedness and present tax rate. The length of the bond issue should then be as short as possible within these combined factors. It is costly to borrow money and a school board has a responsibility to keep this cost at a minimum.

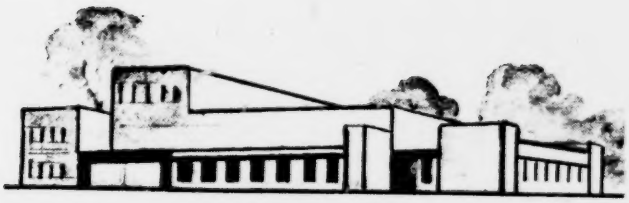
The timing of the sale is, also, critical since interest rates move up and down within the complexities of the financial world. School

boards must rely upon sound professional advice before the issue is floated. In addition, consideration should be given to the use of callable features, especially during periods of high interest. If a bond is subject to redemption upon notice and the interest rates decline, then the board may elect to call in the old issue, discharge the debt, and sell a newer bond that bears the lower interest rate.

Once the school board has received a favorable two-thirds vote from the meeting, there are a number of duties to be performed with proper legal advice from counsel. Notice of the sale must be posted; the bonds advertised for bid; the interest rates set; the actual bonds printed, individually signed by each member of the board; and finally delivered to the buyer. In New Hampshire, the bonds will be of the serial type in which principal and interest payment are made annually. This type of financial paper reduces the over all interest cost by paying back a portion of the principal each year.

To whom the bonds will be sold is a board decision, again requiring advice from a bonding attorney. Bonds may be sold at private sales or even by a presale compact with another party. The most favorable—and most acceptable—in the public interest is a public sale by competitive bidding. Such a method generally assures the lowest possible interest rates on the prevailing market. Of course, the interest rate is reflected in the credit rating of the city or town—the rate being proportionally lower on increased stability of a districts credit. Cooperative districts and AREA schools may have their bonds guaranteed by the state.

Protective controls in the state constitution, revised statutes, court decisions and state school board rules and regulations are all designed to guard public monies and the taxpayer. All these legal devices may seem too restrictive on local boards—but they do act as safeguards. There are alternatives such as the establishment of capital reserve funds; use of current expense money; local purchase of the bonds; or even increase of local property assessments to increase the debt limit. No such alternative action should be attempted without legal advice.



HISTORICAL PAST

The "little red schoolhouse" prevailed in New Hampshire for 300 years. As a quaint antiquity, it has earned its place in the hearts of New Englanders. The typical design was invaribly capped with truncated bell steeple to symbolize the close affinity between church and school—which has long since been legally separated. However, the quaint district schoolhouse was much better to look at than learn in—and its physical condition was under constant attack by early School Committees. The floor of the large room was generally slanted from rear to front—wooden benches provided the seating—sanitary facilities were primitive with slanted seats to discourage lingering—heating was by fireplace or wood stove and because of its inadequacy all from the back seats came down by turn to thaw out nearer to the source of heat. Teaching was limited to memory and rote with all ages crowded into one space with one teacher.

A Meredith School Committee report of 1845 had this to say—(the school houses). . .are very inconvenient in their construction. They stand in the most desolate and uninviting spots in the district. They are unpainted, and have no playground or shrubbery, unless they are standing in a swamp or wood. No wonder so many children do not love school." In 1852—"There is not in Meredith a first rate school house. We hope there will be improvement in what may be called the furniture. . .that each (schoolhouse) will be supplied with at least one decent chair, a good stove, a basin for water, a good broom, a convenient desk for the teacher and a copy of Webster's Dictionary upon it."

The record book of Sandwich District #2 in 1866 had a series of questions in the back which provided information for the School Committee—such as, Has the school a globe? A clock? A thermometer? A black board? The answers were invaribly "No." One witty teacher replying to the questions: Is there any arrangement for ventilation other than windows or doors? If so, is it reasonably effective?—had replied "Cracks" after the first one and "Tis not" to the second.

In such buildings, 40 to 50 students ranging in age from six to 21 would be taught the three R's and little else by a single teacher who was required to be more of a physical monitor than an educational mentor. There could be no lectures or classroom discussion because of the wide differences in age and ability. The best a lone teacher could do was hear recitation, test memory keep order and emphasize moral teaching through Bible reading or spiritually oriented text books.

By the middle of the 19th century, the change from an agricultural to an industrial economy and the resulting rise of the urban society produced changes in the schools. The "one-room" circle was about to be broken by a series of developments: Separate reading and writing schools, which had been functioning independently of each other, were united—Age grouping was introduced with seven to nine divisions that enjoyed a progression of subject matter; separate teachers for each grade; certified promotion from grade to grade; and an enlarged curriculum, lengthened school year and text book instruction.

THE GRADED SCHOOLS

To meet these departures a "radically new" school house was needed. Architects rose to the challenge. In 1848 the Quincy Grammar School was built—the first graded elementary school in the country specifically designed to fit the new educational program. It contained a series of uniform classrooms with the "great" innovation of a separate desk and chair for each scholar. They were firmly screwed to the floor and came in seven sizes to fit the students. Also, a grand assembly on the top floor of the four story structure could seat all 600 students at one time.

Since the graded school evolved in the cities with their large enrollments, the one-room, ungraded format continued for many years in rural areas. In fact, New Hampshire still supports a handful of such schools. However, once the circle was broken, a continuous stream of new ideas, new materials and new architectual approaches has kept the school house in a constant state of change—and the trend is irreversible.

Three brilliant minds—far ahead of their times—revolutionized the old "memory, rote and regurgitation" approach to "observations, investigation, evaluation and self-expression." The educational floodgates were open and new subject matter flowed freely. Johann Pestalozzi, the Swiss Educational reformer; William James, the American psychologist; and John Dewey, the United States philosopher and educator—all working separately during a 100 year span—stimulated the freer approach to methods of education.

FIRST KINDERGARTEN

School construction underwent more "radical" change with the appearance of pre-school kindergarten in St. Louis in 1873. Borrowed from the German for "child's garden," the class made use of the pre-schoolers tendency to express themselves in action. This required larger, more flexible rooms from which the furniture had to be unbolted from the floor; open storage space provided for paints, paper, clay, paste and other learning materials; plumbing facilities in the room for sinks that provided ready water; and furniture designed to meet the small child's needs. The kindergarten freedom and flexibility became contagious and filtered upward through the entire school system.

Following on the heels of pre-school classes, came manual training for boys and home economics for girls. This readily acceptable

trend meant more space, differently arrange, and the architects again met the demands of the specialized program.

THE HIGH SCHOOL

Up to this point, it was the public grammar schools which were changing their faces from year to year. Any higher education was left to the private academies. However, a ground swell for the public high school could not be held back. In the last 40 years of the 19th century, the number of public high schools in the United States grew from 300 to 6,000. The first of the 20th century enjoyed a growing pressure for more education for the masses, while child labor laws took adolescent youngsters out of the factories and sweatshops, booming attendance in secondary schools. Enrollments quadrupled from 1899 to 1920. Unfortunately, the IQ ratings of high school students dropped 15 points during this period, indicating a need for a transitional school to ease the change from the informal climate of the elementary school to the more formal atmosphere of the departmentalized high school. Thus, the junior high school was born, in 1910, to the educational family with its specialized space requirements that created new construction problems for School Boards.

World War I added further changes to school design. Broader vocational training both in business courses and skilled trades need space. Draft rejections sharply emphasized the lack of physical fitness in the American male and gave rise to gymnasiums, playgrounds and interscholastic sports.

COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL

Then came the singular American institution—the comprehensive high school. Students were sorted out by ability and interest—then sent along preplanned tracks toward college preparation, vocational training or business education. This meant guidance counselors were needed to give students direction and off-set the growing impersonality of the system. Office space and conference rooms were needed. Also, spatial needs arouse for music, art, science, drama, cafeteria, health, teacher's relaxation and many other minor demands of the comprehensive school.

In addition, schools were being kept open around the clock and the calendar responding to summer school, adult education, civic intellectual and recreational needs, library and library services and students extra-curricula activities.

It is clearly evident that school space demands have been in a constant state of motion for the past century, trying to keep pace with the healthy growth and change in the educational community. It would, also, be a safe speculation that a school built in the 1970's will not fully meet the needs of the 21st century. The forward motion will remain constant placing a heavy burden upon school boards to plan carefully and with imagination. The school house built today must be designed with flexibility for tomorrow.

A MASTER PLAN

Where to begin is the burning question? The answer:- a master plan. This sounds disarmingly simple when in fact it can be the toughest job any school board will ever undertake. It requires the accumulation of a host of information about the schools, the community and the state followed by an enlightened evaluation of the data. Then comes the most difficult part—making the important decisions that will have a long-range effect upon the entire district—the decisions to abandon, renovate or build.

A master plan eliminates the emergency syndrome of so many school boards who go from crisis to crisis to crisis when they deal with individual schools one at a time. Simply meeting a crisis can prove costly in the long haul for the taxpayer. Economy is the watchword of school boards—and system-wide planning has economy as a principal aim and benefit.

Planning must have a broad base of involvement—selectmen, planning boards, Chambers of Commerce, real estate boards, local developers, service clubs, utility companies, bankers, lawyers, professional groups, parents and citizens. The work may be slow and cumbersome but community wide participation can produce subtle—but often intangible—results. Final drawing up of the master plan is a board responsibility. Active support and understanding from the total community is a giant step toward success when taxpayer decisions come up for a vote.

THE NUMBERS GAME

The keystone of any master plan is numbers. A schools space requirements are based on two critical factors:-

(1) The number of students to be educated; and

(2) the educational program to be offered.

Population predictions are more complicated than a simple nose count. A house to house census should reveal the total number and ages and location of children in the community from new borns to age 21. The reason for extending the age to 21 is to cover the future possibility of junior college program becoming a part of public education. The results will permit school boards to forecast future growth or shrinkage for the next five years—to determine the heaviest concentrations of potential school children for future site determination—and to safely project, with reasonable accuracy for a ten year period, the future growth.

Population statistics are never fixed which complicates forecasting. Shifting masses of people for social and economic reasons seriously effect accuracy. Americans, on an average, move once every five years—younger citizens every 30 months—and trailers, which now house 20 percent of the United States public, shift every 18 months. The major flow, at the present time, is from the cities to the suburbs, which will eventually result in one sprawling metropolis covering hundreds of miles.

So in addition to a census, critical housing data must be gathered —home building trends, unit occupancy, and land use. It is impor-

tant to know the composition of households—whether they live in single, double or multiple dwellings—the size and character of any new housing developments—population shifting within the community—changes from residential to commercial usuage—the area of undeveloped land, its type and probably utilization so future roads, water, utility and sewer extensions may be anticipated.

No single formula will fit every district. All forecasting requires judgment as to what facts must be collected and then how the accumulated information may be usefully employed. But even the smallest district must have a basic census translated visually to a dot map which will show concentrations of school children at a glance.

Districts with complicated forecasting problems would do well to hire consultants especially trained for such work—but even for the specialist, a ten year population prediction is the outside limit. Beyond that period, the unpredictables are too numerous.

A simple factor often overlooked is the present and future effect of church-related or private schools on enrollments. Some communities have private preparatory schools which enroll local students for a tuition fee not in excesss of the state average, but this policy is at the whim of the trustees and subject to change. This is, also, true of church related schools, whose opening, or in some cases abandonment, will effect the number of children to be educated in the public schools. Such data must be included in any master plan.

CONDITION OF PRESENT SCHOOLS

When all the facts have been assembled, including a study of the physical condition of present schools, the tough decisions must be made. School buildings have a life cycle. Gradual obsolescence occurs in two areas:-

(1) Physicial deterioration beginning with the service system involving plumbing, heating and lighting and then after about 50 years general deterioration; and

(2) changes in curriculum and methods of teaching.

There are no specific rules on when a school house should be abandon. Statistically, this generally occurs between the ages of 50 and 70 years. Two points must be satisfied to keep a building from retirement:-

(1) Is the facility expandable?

(2) Is the building structurally sound with a sufficient life expectancy to warrant a major investment. A school board who can not reply "yes" to both of these questions should make a firm stand to abandon. A school building that can not be remodeled at a reasonable cost to satisfy the state standards of health and safety, while at the same time meeting the spatial needs of the present day and possible future programs of education has outlived its usefulness.

The decision to renovate is, also, difficult and should not be undertaken without sound professional advice from architectual, engineering and educational consultants. Since renovation aims at the same objectives as a new building and involves a comparable

expenditure of money, the decision should be based on a comparable amount of study and investigation. It all boils down to a simple ratio:- the benefits accruing from the expenditure in relation to the remaining useful life of the building compared with a wholly new building. To often school boards make a decision to renovate without foresight—without skilled advice—and without sufficient data. This can result in a costly error in judgment for the taxpayer. For the sake of sound economy, investigate thoroughly before coming to a decision.

The third choice is to build. If the master plan contains spatial requirements which can not be achieved economically and structurally from existing buildings, there is only one answer left—build.

THE ARCHITECT

The key person in any construction project is the architect. The results of his efforts will leave an indelible mark upon the district that will remain for the next fifty years. One can not overemphasize the importance of selecting the right one. It requires time to make this critical selection. Politics, local favoritism, or friendship should never be the decisive factor. Quality is what a board should be seeking and time and effort should be expended to find that quality. This means visiting schools designed by a prospective architect—talking with administrators and teachers in these schools—conferring with the general contractor who executed the plans and specifications—eliciting community response to the building through local Chamber of Commerce, service clubs, board of selectmen, realtors and ordinary citizens.

Per capita outlay of any building project is a major investment—and tax burden. Architects charge a fixed percentage of the total cost based on A. I. A. regulations. In addition, estimates made by the New York State Department of Education reveal that a good architect can save as much as five percent of the total cost of the building. No one decision by a school board will have so much effect on the final outcome of a building program. Take enough time to reach a wise choice.

WHAT TO EXPECT

What might a school board expect from an architect?—help in site selection; engineering studies of the site; a structural design to meet the board's educational and spatial needs; preparation, circulation and analysis of bids; drawing up of contracts with detailed specifications; supervision of construction; evaluation and recommendations for any incomplete or unsatisfactory work.

During the planning stages, the architect will supply the board with costs estimates, budgets, and visual projections in the form of models or sketches for use by the public.

What might an architect expect from a school board?—the educational planning; the space requirements to fit the school's curriculum; the census and age composition of the students for the day the school will be put to use and, also, ten years hence; the teaching methods, such as team-teaching, large group, small seminars and the

like; the type and extent of the teaching "hardware," such as lab equipment for languages and sciences, projectors, teaching machines and other audio-visual aides; the relationship of the library to the curriculum; large space requirements, as auditoriums, cafeterias, gymnasiums, dramatic arts, vocational training and community uses; projected size of groups to be brought together for study; space needs for teachers, both for relaxation and carrying out professional duties; adminstrative office requirements; health center; guidance facilities; and any other space requirements that are essential to a particular program.

In summary it divides into only two considerations:-

(1) The numbers to be accommodated

(2) The type of space needed to serve the numbers.

With this information, the architect is ready to go to the drawing board. The more information an architect has about the educational program and the community in general, the more creative and imaginative he can be, while at the same time producting a structurally sound set of plans.

SITE SELECTION

One big advantage of a master plan is knowledge of future building needs which permits early acquisition of land—and subsequent saving of money. Nothing leaps in value quite as much as an undeveloped acreage when it is thought to be needed for a building site. Carried on the tax lists for generations as pasture or stumpland with an assessed valuation of $20 per acre, it suddenly becomes a "potential housing development" worth several thousands of dollars per acre. So buying land before the pressure of necessity is wise foresight and planning.

The contour, the geological condition and the location of a site within the district can have short-range effects on building and site development costs and long range effects on maintencance and transportation. Land should be considered for what lies beneath the ground as well as its surface. Test borings and sub-soil analysis should be made before any land is purchased. What might appear visually acceptable may harbor ledges that will mean costly blasting—shallow sub-surface water that will need permanent drainage, or a bottomless peat bog that can not support the weight of a school building, even on expensive piling.

Primary site consideration should be adequate size, community location related to present and future population trends, noise, traffic, industrial and residential development, and aesthetics. There is a rule of thumb for adequate size of an elementary school lot—five acres for every 100 pupils plus one. However, such a rule is worthless in general application because every individual situation is different. A high school requirement is ten acres plus one for each 100 students so a 2000 pupil high school in the middle of a city would find many problems in buying a 31 acre site, where a rural school might easily afford 100 acres for 100 students. It is the physical character of the district, local land values, the size of the school, amount of tax money available, the educational program to

be accommodated, and special land needs, such as playing fields and parking lots for cars, that will influence the size of the site.

Site, also, effects the design of the building. Irregularities may often be used effectively by an imaginative architect. The placement of the building on the site can make excellent use of existing trees that can influence the money to be considered for heating, cooling, ventilating and lighting. Trees can serve as windbreaks against New England's cold northwest winter winds—as ventilating wind tunnels in warm weather—and shelter from the sun. On site trees should be retained wherever possible—and used most effectively in the planning.

BUILDING MAINTENANCE

BUILDING MAINTENANCE AND CUSTODIANS

Money can be saved by spending money on a first class maintenance and custodial program for the schools. Whether it is a one-school community or a sprawling urban complex, the capital invested in buildings represents the largest single public expenditure. Such an investment of tax dollars needs preserving. If a schoolhouse is to serve a district for fifty years or more, then it must be maintained at the highest level of condition at all times. Postponing upkeep is false economy. A school board should not go from crisis to crisis. In addition, the quality of the educational program is, more often than not, reflected in the environment. A clean,well-kept building—outside as well as inside—helps provide this quality environment and public image.

A school board should adopt policies for the performance of the custodial staff in caring for the building that will provide efficient administrative control. In writing out its objectives, the school board should make it clear that maintenance is a continuing problem—a day to day preventive process. The responsibility for maintenance should be delegated directly to the Superintendent, with authority to reassign this responsibility to principals, who in turn—as an administrative procedure—place major control of the plant with the head custodian. No one should be more knowledgeable of the building's needs—immediate and long range—than the head custodian. He is the "landlord" who determines what—when—how—and by whom care and maintenance jobs will be done. He should have an intimate acquaintance with the total plant—awareness of the principal's needs—and the abilities of his staff to fulfill these tasks

Such an administrative cadre permits control at the proper level and provides an open channel of communication. Problems that can not be solved at the custodial level may be referred to the principal—from there to the superintendent—and finally back to the board, if the problem is severe enough to require board action. This system

frees the board and professional administrators from housekeeping chores, while at the same time develops status and professionalism in the custodial staff. Janitorial work has been too long associated with demeaning work. Failures have too often occurred because the "low-man-on-the-totempole" was given neither prestige nor dignity despite his important role in preserving the district's capital investment and maintaining a well-kept, clean environment for the students.

Success depends upon the individual men on the custodial staff. The policy of the board should be to create a sense of importance and dignity in the work that these men do—show appreciation for tasks well done—and build self-importance in the critical role they perform in the total educational process. If you give a good man a challenge, he will respond to the best of his ability. However, in recognizing the role of the custodial staff, a board should have a salary scale that is attractive and in proportion to the responsibilities involved in the work.

One aide which a board should employ is a custodian's manual for distribution to all members of the custodial staff—especially new employees. Such a manual can describe the board's attitude toward the importance of building care and the maintenance in the educational program—contain general cleaning procedures currently in use—enumerate employment rules and regulations—and outline grievance procedures. Another aide is to provide clean uniforms for all custodians on a regular basis at board expense. A standard uniform creates a neat appearance and makes a custodian recognizable in the building at all times.

It will be expected the head custodian will set up both the regular and long range schedules for his staff. A regular schedule would include tasks which recur daily—or even weekly—such as floor care, flag raising, window cleaning, trash disposal or other needs peculiar to any particular building. The long range schedule might include furniture repair or refinishing, equipment maintenance, painting and similar jobs. Men will be given assignments which fit their abilities and special talents—but with sufficient flexibility to allow one man to be easily freed for emergency repairs or unusual situations at a moments notice. When a major breakdown occurs that can not be handled by the staff, the head custodian should request permission from the school principal to immediately seek outside help.

When it comes to budgeting, the head custodian should have authority to work out with his own staff the anticipated needs for the coming year along with recommendations for major maintenance projects. His requests will then be submitted with supporting data to the principal for evaluation. Since the head custodian is closer to the situation than anyone else, it is anticipated that his budget requests will be realistic. Depending upon the number of schools in a district, central purchasing either on a district or union basis is advised to take full advantage of quantity discounts. Also, major replacements, repairs and new equiment should be put out to bid from a central office to combine similar projects and effect more favorable bidding.

Union sponsored workshops and in-service training programs

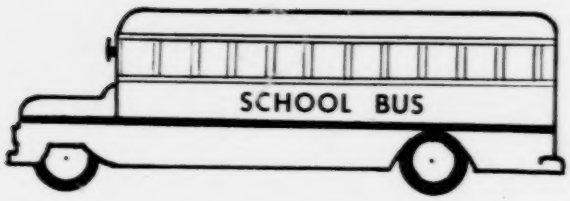
for custodians should be part of board policy on a formal, regular and structured basis. Such programs allow the custodial staff to exchange ideas—air gripes—and keep abreast of new materials and new techniques. Industrial suppliers can often be called upon to conduct workshops to demonstrate new equipment and cleaning materials.

PLANT SECURITY

Plant security should, also, be the province of the custodial staff. This can best be accomplished if all locks respond to a master key with sub-master keys for departments of special areas of the building. All keys should be rigidly controlled—registered—and in short supply. Otherwise it makes it difficult for the custodial staff to effect tight security. A school large enough to have a custodial staff on a shift basis would do well to schedule around the clock shifts so that, at least, one man is in the building at all times.

The extent of security for school buildings is closely related to local conditions. Some large city schools, in areas of high crime incidence, go so far as to have police on duty within the buildings. Others feel the need to have elaborate alarm systems connected with police headquarters. Some use outside lighting as a deterrent to breaking and entering. Common sense is the best rule of thumb when considering the degree of plant security necessary in any district. Protection of persons, of course, has first priority over property—but boards must not over-react. The educational climate is seriously affected when school buildings become fortresses and armed camps. Subtle forms of security can keep the tension out of the environment and boards should seek the advice of their insurance agents and the local police before developing any policies for plant security.

There is no firm rule of thumb for how much money should be allowed each year to maintenance but in setting a fairly realistic figure, engineers have determined that two percent of the valuation of the district's school buildings generally provides a sufficient amount to carry on an above average program. However, money alone does not assure good maintenance. A board must begin with a well written policy. After that it depends upon the individual members of the custodial staff. People—not dollars—provide good maintenance. A board should expect annual evaluation of the process from each school principal—or with greater frequency, if inefficiencies exist. Maintenance is too critical a responsibility to be neglected.



SCHOOL TRANSPORTATION

Seemingly far removed from the actual learning process, the transportation of students is an integral part of the educational program and one to which school boards must often direct their attention. State laws clearly describe the conditions under which pupil transportation must be provided (RSA 189:6 through 189:9). However, the local board has broad discretionary powers to elaborate on these minimum requirements if public demand and a better education is to be served. More and more schools are providing "late; buses for students who remain after the close of the school day for some form of extra-curricula activity—athletics, teacher conferences, library and laboratory work, club meetings and other student committments; "early" buses for kindergarten and handicapped pupils on short sessions; "special" buses for field trips and athletic events; and "selective" routing of buses so that younger children, at least, are given home to school to home transportation.

Having every parent completely satisfied with school transportation is an impossible dream. Each district has its special problems which must be arbitrated fairly with the public. Sometimes it means hard decisions, backed up by state law, because a bus route does not have to pass any closer than one mile of a student's home. Even special permission may be obtained from the State Board of Education to require a pupil to walk a distance greater than one mile to the bus route when it is not possible to safely drive a bus closer to the home and other arrangements can not be made.

NEED SIDEWALKS

Although new schools are hopefully located in the most dense area of the school population so that the largest number of pupils may walk to school on sidewalks provided by the community, sidewalks are not always in existence. It is the duty of school boards to request safe walking conditions from the town selectmen, if none exist. This would not only include sidewalks but police protection to guard the children on foot and allow free flow of school buses in traffic.

TRANSPORTATION COSTS

Roughly 35% of all New Hampshire students are transported by school buses. The cost of this service on the current state average is $50 per pupil transported and takes four cents out of every school

dollar. These cost figures include the transportation of high school students, even though it is not required by law. Busing high school students has become an accepted routine in New Hampshire, especially with the growth in the number of cooperative and AREA secondary schools that draw students from surrounding towns.

In examing the cost of transportation, school boards might want to make a study of the comparative costs of transportation between district owned and district contracted buses. Latest available figures from the State Department of Education show that the state average per pupil cost using district owned or leased buses runs about 30% less than a contracted service, while operating cost per mile is roughly 13% lower for district owned buses. The over-all statistics seem to favor district ownership—but there are several considerations which are part of the comparative picture. To achieve less expensive transportation it requires a fleet of at least five or more vehicles in operation. The other important factor is that ownership entails responsibility with its attendant problems. Any school board wanting assistance in studying transportation may contact the Administrative Services of the State Department of Education.

REGULATIONS

In addition to the mandatory regulations that bind the school boards as to who and under what circumstances pupils must be transported, there are many specific rules and regulations for school transportation which come under the control of the Department of Safety, Division of Motor Vehicles, which set the specifications for the vehicles, operators and methods of operation. When bus service is contracted, it is the responsibility of the contractor to see that all these conditions are fulfilled. Although, ultimate responsibility still remains with the board. However, in public ownership it becomes a school board responsibility to not only provide transportation but to see that all buses are properly equipped and maintained above the minimum state standards for safe operation. The board must, also, provide capable, careful, healthy and legally qualified drivers who have a full knowledge of the laws pertaining to bus operations.

At the present time, there is no financial aid from the state for the transportation of pupils. The only instance where the state must provide transportation is to a pupil residing in an unorganized township (RSA 186:11).

HAZARDS

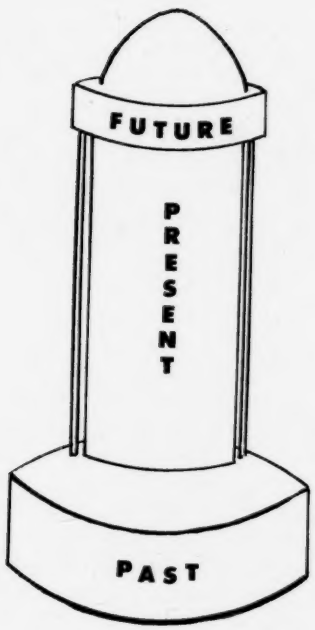
New Hampshire school transportation must contend with two variable hazards—roads and weather. Steep grades, sharp curves and other hazards that are directly related to geography combine with third class dirt roads which become impassable during certain seasons of the year to create problems. In addition, the famous vagaries of New England weather provide additional problems during winter months, especially. The Department of Public Safety has no specific rules concerning road conditions under which school buses must be "grounded" because no standard specifics are possible. However, the school board should have a policy which requires the

bus driver to report unsafe conditions. When there is danger to the safety of the students, this information is relayed to the Superintendent of Schools for appropriate action. The bus driver should, also, be granted full authority to discontinue a trip enroute, if road conditions become too hazardous for travel.

For example, a basketball team may be going to an "away" game when an unexpected sleet storm endangers the trip. The driver of the vehicle must have authority to judge the degree of the hazard and proceed, turn back or discontinue the trip on his own judgment and make whatever provisions are necessary to give the passengers maximum protection and safety.

SAFETY DRILL

A policy almost wholly neglected in school transportation is student drill in emergency procedures similar to school fire drills, which have been board policy for many years. Children should be drilled in the location and operation of emergency coors and windows —the location and use of fire extinguishers, first aid kits and other emergency equipment—orderly procedures for evacuating a bus under emergency circumstances—and delegation of student leaders to function in an emergency that incapacitates a driver either by illness or injury. A board would do well to have a written policy for emergency bus drills with the cooperation and advice of the State Department of Public Safety, Division of Motor Vehicles.



FUTURISTICS

As school boards set about the task of determining needs and setting goals, the future must be uppermost in the deliberations. The past provides a base to support the educational rocket of today—but the educational effort will provide the energy to lift that spacecraft into the future. It becomes obvious as education jets off into the future that it has both direction and purpose. The function of education must be consistent with society's goals—and in too many instances this consistency has been violated or ignored.

From the origins of public education, the basic goal of learning has been delegated to the schools. However, this delegation was never totally entrusted to the sytem because people have always been educated by non-school means—the apprentice system, churches, libraries, summer camps, scouting programs and countless others. There is strong evidence to support the contention that society is leaning toward the withdrawal of this delegation: to wit; budget cutting, defeat of bond issues, demands for accountability. So it is not beyond the realm of possibility for education to be gradually detached from the present structures without any great disruption. It is, also, not unreasonable to expect school buildings to remain in use around the calendar and around the clock to serve the entire community as a resource and learning center for citizens of all ages. This would result in greater efficiency in the use of public buildings and give expanded educational service to the public.

Moral Future

Education is morally responsible for meeting the needs of society, whether it means providing skills or helping people to find and enrich themselves. The health and vitality of any community is reflected in its schools—and the public welfare is in jeopardy, if it does not act reponsibly to improve the environment—social and physical—in which it functions.

Future in Technology

The use of software and hardware can be expected to change the course of learning. Sophisticated computers, video-tape recording systems, electronic teaching aides and other forms of rapidly expanding informational technology permits educators and those to be educated to "know" much more. The amazing ability to store, retrieve and utilize information has switched the emphasis away from memorizing facts to learning the means of accessing what one has to know when the need arises. Facts and factors are so readily available that all one has to do is push the buttons on an electronic "master-mind".

Social Future

An expanding society in a shrinking world has set in motion a dramatic shift in social values. To survive in a global community, the materialistic and prejudicial society must move toward the humanistic philosophy of social awareness. The school system will develop greater concern for man's humanity to man, which should begin at the district level. The thrust of the school of the future will be toward greater self-actualization and more satisfying interpersonal relationships.

Environmental Future

Environmental concern has greatly intensified at all levels of society. This concern will change the course of educational priorities to embrace all elements of the environment, not only the air, water, sight and sound pollution but the proper use of world resources. By scientifically projecting the implications of any change, whether it be population control or the rotary engine, a knowledge of its impact upon society will be evaluated on balance concerning its short term and long range effects upon the world environment before commitments are made.

Productive Future

The productive ability of society will soon exceed the public's ability to consume its products. This will result in shorter work scheduled and greater amounts of leisure time. For the future, this means a shift from goods to services and a challenge for the public schools to train people to assume roles that will meet this need.

Predictions for the Future

1. A sharp decrease in the construction of school buildings, as we know them now.

2. Existing buildings will be put to greater use.
3. The age spread of students will effect both ends of the chronological scale, as more emphasis will be placed on early childhood education at one end and on older students including the elderly on the other end.
4. Improved techniques in the collection of performance data will make evaluation of the schools more accurate and provide ongoing accountability of exactly what the tax dollars are buying quantitatively and qualitatively.
5. As the educational process spreads over the district, the lines of demarcation between the schools and other institutions in the community will become increasingly indistinct.
6. The self-contained classroom will be subordinated to the total environment. Learners will acquire knowledge by direct life experience or through simulated environments or well-designed educational games.
7. The stress will be on learning HOW to learn and educational goals will be directed more heavily on affective learning as opposed to the present emphasis on cognitive skills.

As school boards attend to the nitty-gritty problems of the day to day operation of the schools, they are apt to lose the fact that there is a tomorrow. However, the problems of today will be easier to solve in the long run, if the decision making is made in the context of their effect upon the future. By projecting the implications of a decision into the future, a school board can reduce its present dilemma of moving from crisis to crisis.

HELP WANTED

School boards occasionally require information and assistance beyond what is available at the local level. To fill this needs, there are many organizations and agencies who can provide data and help. Some of these are discussed under the various topic headings in the book. However, the list is almost unlimited and only the more important general sources can be listed. Requests for help to these general sources may lead a school board to more specific sources of information:-

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION
State Department of Education
State House Annex
Concord, New Hampshire

DIRECTOR
Center for Educational Field Services (CSFS)
University of New Hampshire
Durham, New Hampshire

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
New Hampshire School Boards Association
6 Garrison Avenue
Durham, New Hampshire

New Hampshire Council for Better Schools
922 Elm Street
Manchester, New Hampshire

UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION (USOE)
Washington, D. C. 20006

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
1201 16th Street, NW
Washington, D. C. 20036

NATIONAL SCHOOL BOARDS ASSOCIATION
1233 Central Street
Evanston, Illinois 60201

Financial Information

UNITED STATES CHAMBER OF COMMERCE
1615 H Street, NW
Washington, D. C 20036

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR SUPPORT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS
1424 16th Street, NW
Washington, D. C. 20036

School Construction and Equipment Information

THE EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES LABORATORIES, INC.
477 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10022

Programmed Learning Information

AMERICAN INSTITUTES FOR RESEARCH
P.O. Box 1113
Palo Alto, California

THE STATE ASSOCIATION

Any school board that needs help can obtain a wide variety of services from the New Hampshire School Boards Association. The principal purposes of the NHSBA are:

1. To assist member districts with problems that may not easily be managed on the local level.
2. To provide information and training of value to all individual members of the NHSBA.

What are some of the services available from the state association? The list is constantly changing with changing needs, but some major examples are:

NEGOTIATIONS—retains a firm specializing in educational negotiations, which may be utilized by any member district on a per diem basis.

CONSTRUCTION—can serve as educational consultants in school building programs.

PLANNING—can assist districts or unions in long range and short term planning studies.

POLICY—can provide help in developing individual or a complete set of policies for a district.

STATISTICS—can provide current data on state wide educators salaries or other basic information.

INFORMATION—can provide information on legislative sctivities affecting education; changes in Federal laws and programs; important school board activites on the national level.

CONFERENCES—conducts state wide conferences, featuring nationally known experts on topics of current importance.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING—carries out regional and state wide training seminars for board members on current issues and problems.

PUBLICATIONS—regularly circulates a newspaper, **The Newsletter,** to board members and other educators with important information on current happenings that may affect local districts.

Prepares and circulates brochures and reports of specific studies.

NHSBA provides each board member with a copy of **"Shaping The Schools"** to serve as a guide for boardmanship.

NATIONAL LINKAGE—as an active member of the National School Boards Association, the NHSBA is represented at regional and national meetings and conferences, serving as a pipeline into New Hampshire of important school board activities on the national scene. It, also, serves as a linkage for national services available to states and local districts.

These are the major services of the NHSBA. However, the association is flexible enough to adapt to any need which New Hampshire school board members might require. It is an organization which can readily assist local districts with problems requiring help that would only be available on the state level.

The affairs of the NHSBA are conducted by an 18-member Executive Council. Each member serves a three year term and is elected at the annual school board conference. The Council consists of a State President, a 1st Vice-President, a 2nd Vice-President and three representatives from each of five different areas of the state geologically divided into the North Country, Central Region, Southeastern Region, Southwestern Region and City Districts. This system provides statewide representation on the Council.

The Association employs a paid Executive Secretary and a support staff. The office of the NHSBA is presently (1973) located at 6 Garrison Avenue, Durham, N.H. 03824.

Financial support is mainly from membership dues paid by districts. The degree of local assessment is based upon a district's student population. From time to time, special activities are wholly or partially supported by government or private grants or by registration fees charged conference or seminar participants. Insignificant income is received on an irregular basis from other sources.

When you need a helping hand, the NHSBA is ready to serve all member districts. Local board members are encouraged to participate in the activites of the state association.

THE TEACHING STAFF

School board members must be alert to the change which is occurring between school boards, administrators, and the teaching staff. The vertical descent of power no longer exists. It has been replaced by a much more horizontal approach with policy making, administration, and teaching on nearly even terms. Paternalism is "out", professionalism is "in." The condescending "Father Image," which boards have cultivated in the past, has outgrown its effectiveness in the face of rising professionalism among teachers. Today's teacher is eager, venturesome, impatient, better educated and is anxious to carry out his vital role as a major component in the educational structure.

This shifting position in no way minimizes the importance of school boards and administrators. Exactly the opposite is true. School board responsibilities and administrative duties have been maximized, demanding much more effective performance and progressive thinking. Fortunately, the greatest beneficiary of this horizontal movement is the direct consumer of the process—the student. Ultimately, the far-reaching benefits are reflected in the district, the state and the nation.

Since education is a debt due from present to future generations and since dull teaching may conceivably contribute more to the creation than alleviation of juvenile unrest, it behooves school boards to seek out and maintain only the highest quality in the teaching staff. The very fact that 80 per cent of the current expense money in a school budget is teacher's salaries should alert board members to its importance—but this material consideration can not compare with the fact that the teacher has responsible control of the end product of the entire educational program—the actual learning.

A QUALITY STAFF

Public education is a teacher-aided process in which the learner must accept responsibility along with the teacher. The degree of success is linked to the quality of the teacher-pupil relationship as well as to the support and reinforcement contributed by the child's parents. Thus, every school board is morally committed to providing the learners with the best possible teaching staff. Despite its importance, many boards have difficulty in obtaining and/or maintaining

a high quality staff. There are numerous reasons for this: inadequate salaries, poor recruitment techniques, unsatisfactory working conditions, unwillingness to weed out incompetents, lack of modern techniques for performance evaluation or any of a dozen other shortcomings in the system.

In order to have a superior staff, a board must have:

1. A strong policy relating to teacher quality and a clear understanding with the superintendent that implementation of all the policy elements are a top board priority.
2. A continuing administrative review of staff performance based on data gathered by use of the latest instruments for both objective and subjective teacher evaluation.
3. An effective program for teacher recruitment.
4. A competitive basic salary scale, attractive fringe benefits and working conditions that are reasonable and acceptable.
5. Beneficial teacher/board relations based on mutual respect and understanding and open lines of communication.
6. A strong commitment to eliminate all incompetents from the system.
7. A planned program of in-service training for the improvements of staff skills—including administration.
8. Specific staff goals against which a teacher's performance may be objectively measured.

The recruitment of good teachers requires advance preparation and tireless contact work—either direct or indirect—by the Superintendent. To eliminate the unsatisfactory, and hire only the best is the major objective—but one not always easy to meet. A primary step in the campaign by a school board is to authorize the preparation of a recruitment brochure for distribution to teacher employment centers, teacher college placement bureaus, individual candidates and other employment sources.

Such a brochure should describe the extrinsic value of the district: character of the community, available housing, cost of living, public transportation, summer employment potential, favorability of location, recreational and religious facilities, and other pertinent data. Then it should include the intrinsic values: teacher salaries, working conditions, fringe benefits, educational philosophy of the system, description of the buildings, curriculum depth and so forth.

The liberal use of photographs graphically enlivens such a pamphlet.

Good public relations should be encouraged by the school board, not only as a recruitment instrument but as a "sales pitch" for the schools to the district. Through steady but judicious use of press releases and other communication media which circulates both educational, as well as, extra curricula and athletic accomplishments of the school does encourage candidates to apply who have "heard about" the school.

The bulk of recruiting must be done by the administrators who comb the college campuses, other school districts, and check with teacher employment agencies trying to find potential candidates who meet the minimum stands of the district. The amount of energy so

expended is enormous—but fully as much energy should be expended to make certain that only the best applicants are selected for interview. Information contained in application forms or in letters of reference may conceal a great deal by the mere art of omission—but such data is useful to boards and administrators in a negative sort of way by excluding from consideration candidates who obviously lack the necessary talent to meet the district's standards.

SCREENING

Under today's conditions this screening procedure is always delegated to the adminstrators, since final nomination must by law come from the Superintendent. Even personal interview does not uncover basic teaching weaknesses. Important considerations, such as ability to communicate with students or flexibility to adjust to change, can not be learned in a face to face dialogue. Questions on such intangible matters receive, at best, predictable answers right out of the text book.

The best method is to invite a serious candidate to appear for interview when school is in session, with the advance knowledge that he will be tested in action. The candidate will be asked to actually teach a class, not talk about his ability to teach. His performance will be under the critical eye of administrators or department heads whom he must satisfy. Willingness to appear for a "performance" interview is one big "Brownie Point" in favor of the candidate.

PREPARING TO TEACH

The rise of professionalism and importance of teachers is mirrored perfectly in the history of teacher preparation during the last 75 years. Up through the centuries, a teacher was anyone—usually a woman because she could be hired for less than $5 per month while those men wanted as much as $12—with enough education to keep one jump ahead of the students in the lesson book and enough firey determination to maintain control of the "big" boys who came off the farms and out of the woods for winter school because there was little else to keep them busy that time of the year.

The need for better preparation led to the one-year normal school, where mostly girls attended to learn the fundamentals of the art of teaching. Twenty-five or thirty years of this primitive training gave way to the two year teacher's college where methodology was still the mainstay of the curriculum. Then with the advent of Black Monday, in 1929, when the stock market crash touched off ten years of depression, many high school graduates entered these tuition-free, state supported teacher's colleges as a refuge from economic disaster, with an almost certain guarantee of post graduate employment.

Emphasis was still on "how-to-teach" until the 1950s, when the pendulum swung away toward in-depth subject preparation with fewer courses in teaching procedure, relying more heavily on practice teaching to provide this skill. Thus, the teacher's college

abdicated in favor of a Department of Education in a four year liberal arts training with interest in methods.

Teacher training institutions are making even more dramatic changes in programs for professional preparation. Basic research in the field of learning; in depth studies of human potential and human behavior; sophisticated improvements in the area of communication skills; and increased knowledge of the effects of physical and mental handicaps (dyslexia, emotional disturbance, autism, etc.) on learning are shifting the psychological and philosophical approach to teacher training. One inevitable result will be getting trainees out of the colleges and into the classrooms. The increased contact with students—internships—is an idea whose time has come. The short practice teaching programs of the past will be greatly expanded and extended—even possibly to a five year training period.

For school boards, it means much of the guesswork previously inherent when hiring inexperienced teachers will be eliminated. The candidates for jobs will have been thoroughly "field tested" before being hired. An evaluation of a candidates ability to perform in a class room makes the superintendent's screening job much more accurate.

Boards may, also, be called upon to develop an internship policy for their systems. By participating in such a program, a system stands to gain a great deal. Interns will constantly bring new ideas and new vigor into the schools, which when properly administrated serves to reinforce the current staff. It, also, provides and "on-site" evaluation of possibly teacher candidates in their own systems.

SPECIAL TRAINING

As research continues in the physiology of learning, the extremes of individual ability between the retarded, the gifted and the emotionally disturbed become more important considerations in the training of professional teachers since a larger and larger segment of the student population is discovered whether within or bordering upon these outermost classifications. Training to teach the average student will not be enough so it can be expected that curricula in teacher training will place stronger stress in handling the extremes on the assumption that teaching the "average" student will then become easy.

School boards must be alert to this educational movement and be ready to establish flexible programs to meet the needs of this wide range of student ability. Also, greater emphasis will be made upon primary education as research uncovers the vital importance of kindergarten through the third grade as the launching pad for good study habits and educational motivation.

CERTIFICATION

As agents of the State Board of Education, local boards may not hire teachers who have not been certified by the State. The courts have ruled that the State Board of Education is vested with the sole authority to determine the qualifications of teachers (RSA 186:25).

Local boards, however, must recognize that the mere possession of a state certificate does not assure excellence. It only indicates that a candidate, meets the minimum state standards of preparation and ability. Certification does, however, protect the district from hiring unqualified teachers. In emergencies, the State Board of Education may issue temporary certificates—and does—for limited periods of time. The temporary certificate is generally granted with stipulations that require completion of minimum standards.

PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS BOARD

The Professional Standards Board (PSB) is in effect a quality control board for education personnel. Using the most important legal means available at the state level—**certification**—to upgrade performance and encourage professional growth, the PSB is in a position to greatly influence the persons in New Hampshire education who directly or indirectly have a responsibility for the learning process.

The impact of the PSB is two-directional. By setting the certification standards for entry into the profession, the learner is protected from the unqualified. These standards put pressure upon institutions, accredited to train education personnel, to develop programs that conform to New Hampshire's certification requirements. The other direction is the in-service impact upon already certified persons. Through the use of such instruments as the Staff Development Design, which places responsibility and commits local districts to planning and implementing programs that set measurable and attainable goals for professional growth, the quality of practicing educators is continuously monitored and, hopefully, improved.

Technically, the PSB is a quasi-legal body which serves the State Board of Education (SBE) as an advisory committee on matters related to the certification, decertification and training of educational personnel. It is composed of 15 to 19 persons appointed by the SBE. Not more than 10% may be laymen, approximately 50% should be classroom teachers, and the balance of the members come from the ranks of administration, teacher training institutions or other professional educators.

A school board—through its superintendent—should keep informed about the activities of the PSB, since it has a definite effect upon the employment practices of a district whether in hiring new staff or renewing contracts with current staff.

It then becomes obvious that certification does not relieve school boards of the critical responsibility of constant knowledge of the teaching staff. Adding strength to the weak spots and eliminating without prejudice the unsatisfactory is an unending duty. Classroom visitation is no longer a school board duty, as it was not too many years ago when the Superintending Committeeman waded right into the fray. He observed the teacher in action and often quizzed the students to test what they had learned. Today, classroom visits are encouraged of board members as a broadening experience and a means of obtaining first hand knowledge of school operations—but not as professional critics. Forming an opinion of a teacher's value

must be left to professional administrators. However, regular board meetings should include on the agenda periodic reports by the Superintendent or principals on the progress of new teachers in the system and weaknesses that may be developing in others. Eliminating a teacher who does not meet the school's standards can easily be accomplished in the first year. By the second year, complications develop and after the third year such action becomes very sticky, indeed.

THE FAILURES

No matter how much effort has gone into the hiring of a quality staff, there are bound to be failures. Early indentification of incompetent probationary teachers makes the board's task easy. Those who can not respond to administrative advice and correct their faults are advised three months before the summer closing that their contract will not be renewed. Any such action by a board should be carried out in an orderly manner that conforms to educational and legal regulations and with a clear understanding of the situation by both the teacher and the board.

Things do not always go this smoothly. On rare occasions teachers may request a hearing before the board. If a teacher has been employed in the district less than three years, the board may deny the request—but out of common courtesy, such a request is generally granted. Failure to renew a contract of a three year employee commits the board to holding a hearing, if it is requested (RSA 189:14-a) and an aggrieved teacher has the legal right of appeal to the state board (RSA 189:14-b). Outright dismissal of a teacher is a much more serious action by a board based on immorality or incompetence or insubordination and should be undertaken only with advice of legal counsel (RSA 189:13). Such action may require full payment of the contract.

School boards should have a clear, written policy for actions relating to dismissal or failure to renew a contract. Any case must be well documented in writing both in the form of administrative reports and minutes of board meetings. Recommended inclusion in such board policy should be written records of class room visits and conferences with a copy going to the teacher. In extreme cases, supporting evidence from other administrators, such as the superintendent of schools, should be obtained in writing, with the teacher again being given a copy of all reports.

If there is no improvement in the teacher after administrative counseling, the teacher should be given verbal warning of impending loss of contract. All discussion in executive session up to this point are privy to the board and may not be made public.

In case the teacher refuses to resign, the principal must present evidence in writing to the Superintendent who in turn must make the recommendation in writing to the board for dropping an unsatisfactory staff member. These reports must be entered in the minutes of the board meeting. With this recommendation from the Superintendent, the board must formally adopt a resolution recalling the teacher's contract and ordering dismissal. This action by the board

must be prepared as an official notice by the board secretary and delivered to the teacher by hand, or by registered mail, prior to the rehiring deadline. Such a policy will cover the board legally in the event that the teacher may wish to pursue the case in the courts or with the State Board of Education. In a dismissal hearing, both sides may be represented by legal counsel.

A Proposed

CODE OF ETHICS

for New Hampshire

SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

A school board member, operating under the highest ethical standards, should:

1. Become well acquainted with state laws and state board regulations pertaining to education and support their enforcement.

2. Accept office as a board member as a means of unselfish service.

3. Represent the entire community without favor to any particular segment.

4. Remember at all times that the board member is one of a team and that the statutory authority extended to a board must be exercised by the board as a corporate body.

5. Accept all board decisions once they are made and assist in carrying them out effectively.

6. Maintain open communications with the superintendent of schools, delegating to him the executive functions and confining board action to policy making, planning, and appraisal.

7. Preserve the right and obligation of teachers to teach controversial issues fairly and without bias.

N.H. SCHOOL BOARDS ASSOCIATION INC. 1946

About the author:

Dr. Harold L. Pierson is a graduate of Syracuse University, School of Journalism, and Harvard University Dental School. He has served 19 years on school boards in Hampton, Winnacunnet and Interlakes and three years on the Executive Council of the New Hampshire School Board Association. In 1972, he was awarded an honorary degree of Doctor of Laws from New England College for his work in public education. At present, Doctor Pierson is active in education as a member of the Professional Standards Board for the State of New Hampshire and on the regional level as a member of the Board of Directors of the New England Program in Teacher Education and the New England Economic Development Program in Education. He is, also, a member of the Board of Trustees of Spaulding Youth Center for emotionally disturbed children. As a member of the Comparative Education Society, Doctor Pierson recently studied schools in Russia and Siberia, and has also, examined educational programs in Africa and Latin America.